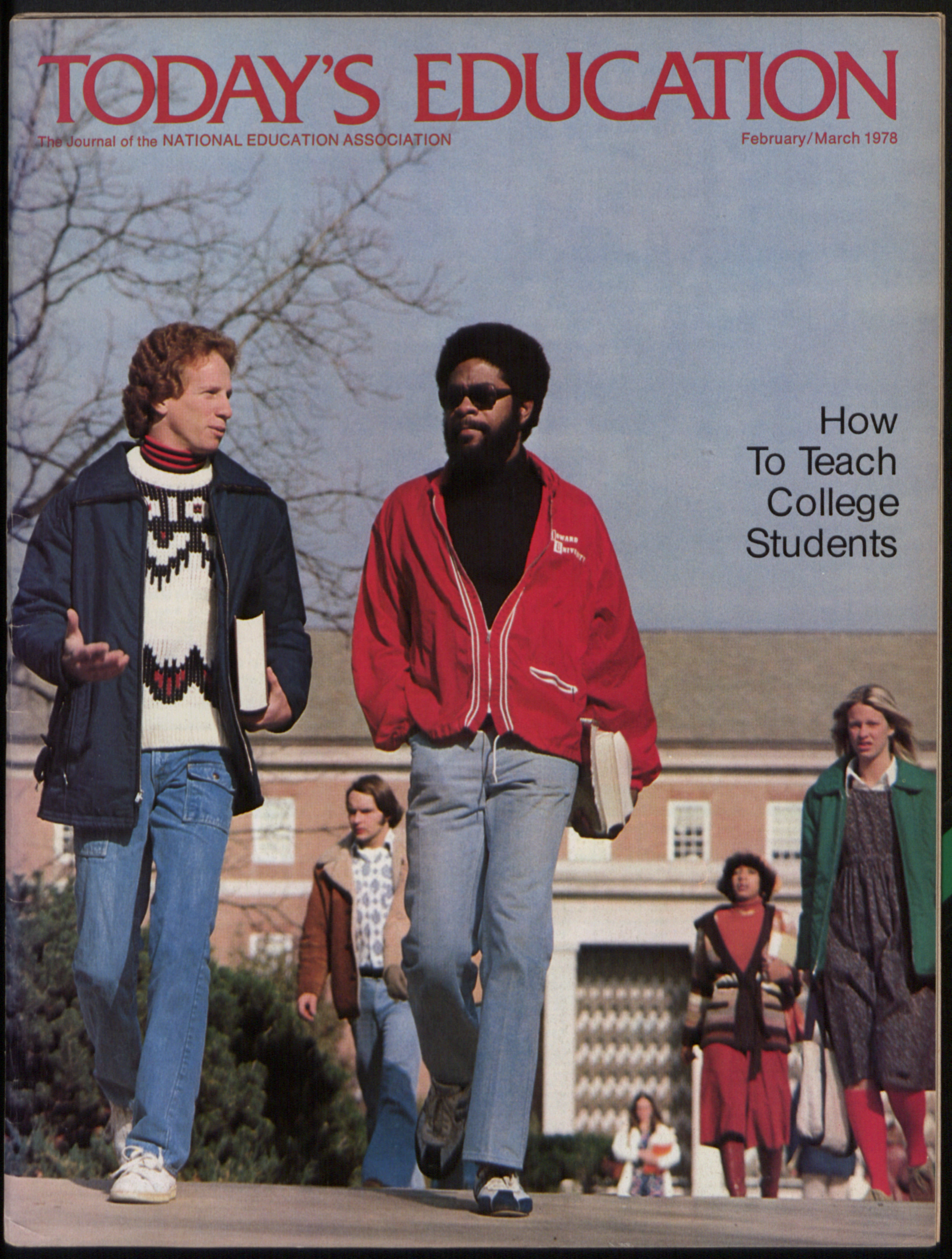
TODAY'S EDUCATION
The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
February/March 1978



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In This Issue

This month's higher education cover reflects the fact that the NEA's and the nation's interest in higher education has perhaps never been more sharply focused than at present.

Established in 1974, the NEA Higher Education Council is more active than ever in helping higher education members and in representing higher education interests in NEA planning.

The NEA's and the nation's interest in the Bakke affirmative-action case, which is still before the U.S. Supreme Court, is indicated in numerous articles in the press. And other problems such as the value of higher education and its financial condition are being discussed everywhere today.

Furthermore, our cover article by Gilbert Highet, professor emeritus of Columbia University, expresses the concern of many observers about the quality of college teaching. In his article, he suggests some ideas for improving instruction.

Dr. Highet's article is on the same wavelength as a recent *New York Times* story about Harvard University's campaign to improve the quality of its undergraduate teaching. A new center has begun offering instruction in teaching methods to young scholars, and professors are being encouraged to revise their courses and methods. As the *Times* story points out, most other major liberal arts institutions have started similar reexaminations of their teaching.

We proudly *re*-present another famous author, Bel Kaufman of *Up-the-Down-Staircase* fame. One of her previous *Today's Education* articles, "Letter to a Dead Teacher," was reprinted by the *Reader's Digest*, and this one is just as good. Titled "Here's to Children Everywhere," the article in this issue describes her visits in the Soviet Union.

"The affection of Russians for their children is evident everyplace, in private homes and public places as well as in schools, where attention is lavished upon them from early infancy in public nurseries throughout the rest of their schooling."

Although Bel Kaufman is impressed with the dedication, seriousness of purpose, and affection of teachers and students in the U.S.S.R., she also comments on the strong stand against religion in the schools and the fact that only politically acceptable books are on their reading lists. She also admits that she can't be sure that the detailed and impressive Soviet syllabus is faithfully followed in all schools. You'll be interested in these and other personal observations of a brilliant writer who talked in Russian with teachers, administrators, librarians, and—above all—with the children.

Another well-known writer, Fred Hechinger of the *New York Times*, discusses the "Back-to-the-Basics Impact."

"Nothing is wrong with reaffirming the fundamental importance of the three R's in the education of every child. What is alarming is the direction the movement is taking in too many minds and too many school systems. . . . The back-to-the-basics pressure coincides with another, far less benign, call—the demand for autocratic discipline, including the use of corporal punishment.

Chris Pipho of the Education Commission of the States follows up the back-to-the-basics discussion with a report of minimal competency standards. By the end of 1977, 31 states had taken either legislative or state board action to ensure that minimal competency standards of some type were introduced into their public schools.

In commenting on this trend, HEW Secretary Joseph A. Califano, Jr., warns, "Basic competency testing will be acceptable and effective only if we stress, along with its benefits, the critical limitations and dangers of testing. . . . The purpose of schools is not merely to produce high scores on achievement tests; it is also to educate children. . . ."

Two special multi-article features appear in this issue. The first one is on "School-Age Parents" and discusses how classroom teachers can help these young people solve their problems. The successful New Brunswick, New Jersey, public schools program is described; a doctor discusses the importance of proper nutrition during pregnancy; a pregnant schoolgirl presents her point of view; the often overlooked problems of the prospective father are confronted; the fact that there is a moral dimension to the problem is emphasized. "Mechanistic solutions to the epidemic of teenage pregnancies are by no means sufficient."

The second special feature deals with the teaching of writing at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels. The first article in the feature presents a few basic rules that can help the teacher develop a successful elementary school writing program; the second, a how-to-do-it procedure for getting high school students to check and revise their writing; the third, a protest against pretentious writing—especially at the college level. Too many college students disdain simple, readable, and concise writing because they want to sound "educated."

Several other articles in this issue written by elementary and secondary classroom teachers from all parts of the country describe their classroom-tested teaching and their from-the-classroom philosophy.

Also in this issue are the usual continuing features designed for teachers at every level—elementary, secondary, and higher education. What's new in today's education? What are our members thinking? What is educational research saying? What teaching tips do classroom teachers find helpful? What new educational books are of the most value? What new educational materials are worth considering?

We hope you'll find some answers to these questions and others in our continuing features and that you'll find interesting and helpful ideas throughout the magazine—whether you teach at the elementary, secondary, or higher-education level. Happy hunting!

—WAG.

TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February-March 1978, Volume 67, Number 1

SPECIAL FEATURES

54 **SPECIAL FEATURE ON WRITING**
Peter Clark Madden, Gloria Chantland, and H. Eric Branscomb

62 **SPECIAL FEATURE ON SCHOOL-AGE PARENTS**
Marion Howard; E. Cassandra Jordan; Myron Winick, M.D.; Elizabeth Ogg; and Eunice Kennedy Shriver

ARTICLES

5 **The Equal Rights Amendment**
John Ryor

22 **"Here's to Children Everywhere!"**
Bel Kaufman

30 **The Back-to-the-Basics Impact**
Fred M. Hechinger

34 **Minimal Competency Standards**
Chris Pipho

38 **How To Teach College Students**
Gilbert Highet

43 **Our Constitutional Conscience**

52 **Read, Tigers, Read**
Linda Zionts Goldberg

CONTINUING FEATURES

88 Audiovisual Materials by *William Cuttill* and *Beverly Teach*

84 Books

82 Classroom Tips by *Jane Tylor Field*

5 Editorial by *John Ryor*

90 Free or Inexpensive

2 In This Issue

10 Letters

92 Materials and Equipment by *P. Kenneth Komoski*

16 Member Opinion Poll

88 New NEA Publications

93 Ownership Statement

95 Reader Service

18 Research Clues by *John H. Hollifield*

7 Trends

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Assistant Editor: Elizabeth E. Yeary

Staff Writer: Jane Power

Editorial Associates: Marian S. Clayton
Nancy R. Needham

Editorial Consultant: Lois Schaeffer Karasik

Publisher: John D. Sullivan

Production and Business Consultant: Paul E. Bergman

Circulation Manager: R. K. Butler, Jr.

Advertising Manager: Robert F. O'Connor

Design: James J. Fisher

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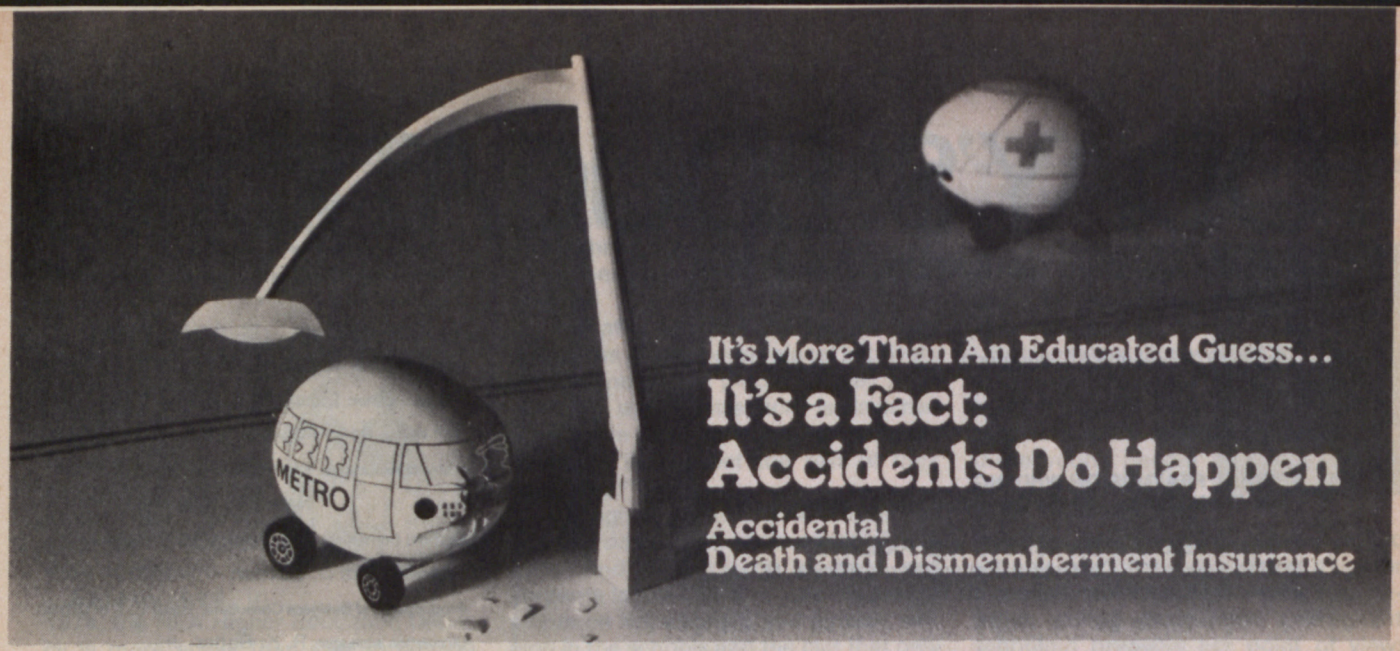

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Editorial

The Equal Rights Amendment

There is a tendency, in times of economic and social uncertainty, to withdraw from unfulfilled commitments, to back away from our promises to include in our structure the forgotten and neglected who have been shut out of job opportunities, who've been denied a proportionate voice in decision making.

Now, in terms of the economics of this nation, teachers have been systematically neglected and denied; a practice that must and will end. But we're not going to make things right for ourselves by ignoring others who likewise have been denied a place in the sun. I'm speaking of minority persons and women—about the application of affirmative action in hiring them and also about guarantees to include in our governance structures those who have consistently been shut out. I believe such policies are essential to our national good and to our organizational health as well.

The need for the Equal Rights Amendment and the importance of its passage must be emphasized.

Since day one, our system has been using women—the larger part of our citizenry—to satisfy narrow needs and has generated rules to keep them in economic bondage thus keeping our entire profession in economic bondage.

For too long, women in our society have been the victims of economic discrimination—victims of a philosophy that said they didn't need as much as men, that because they were women they'd be grateful just to have a supplementary income. Two-thirds of those in our profession are women, but the economic results of that philosophy have been imposed on the profession uniformly. Male teachers, consequently, are just as much the economic victims as women are. So, I appeal to the self-interest of those of you who may have little concern for the inhumanity of age-old sexist attitudes, who may have trouble understanding why women are angry, who may be indifferent to others' victimization: You are being ripped off economically and you will continue to be ripped off as long as the majority of us are treated in the same old cavalier manner that has made economic Ichabods out of us all.

Time is running out. We cannot afford the luxury of sitting back and waiting for someone else to bring reason out of the morass of hysterical nonsense that this simple constitutional amendment has inspired. Some people seem to want to cloud the issue by raising one preposterous notion after another, all in an effort to make the ERA sound like some incredibly complicated document. The rest of us are so snakebitten by governmental documents that we fail to look up the original for ourselves, to see how uncomplicated it really is.

Here is the text of the proposed Equal Rights Amendment:

> Section 1. Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex.
>
> Section 2. The Congress shall have the power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.
>
> Section 3. This amendment shall take effect two years after the day of ratification.

That's the entire document. And I sincerely doubt that it could have been written more clearly, more succinctly, or in any way that could possibly be more obviously compelling. Equal rights under the law shall not be abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex. The laws of our nation shall be applied equally to all of us. That's what this country is all about.

We are the educators of this nation. We cannot stand idly by and allow an amendment so basic to everything we believe and teach about our nation to be destroyed by the scaremongers who run around shouting that the sky is falling, crying that the ERA is all about forcing men and women to use the same latrines, warning about women being drafted in a draft that doesn't even exist anymore.

It doesn't matter whether you approach the ERA from a dollars-in-your-pocket or from a so-called idealistic point of view. It's right, it's necessary, and we've got to work harder than ever to achieve its ratification as the 27th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. □

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

NEA Resolution H-5, Equal Opportunity for Women

The National Education Association insists that all persons, regardless of sex, be given equal opportunity for employment, promotion, compensation, and leadership in all activities.

The Association supports the proposed Equals Rights Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which states: "Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex." The Association urges its affiliates to support ratification of the amendment. It also supports the enactment and full funding of the Women's Education Equity Act.

The Association believes that the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission must have "cease and desist" authority to act in all cases of discrimination based on race, creed, color, national origin, and sex.

The Association urges governing boards and education associations to eliminate discriminatory practices against women in employment, promotion, and compensation. Personnel policies must include maternity leave; paternity leave; leave for adoption of a child; child-care leave; and professional leave, which encourages women to participate in professional growth experiences and to prepare for administrative and executive positions.

The Association further urges professional associations at all levels to adopt policies that ensure women equal access to elective, appointive, and staff positions.

The Association urges the establishment of Women's Education Committees in local and state associations as a vehicle for implementation of equal opportunity for women.

The Association believes that sexism and sex discrimination must be eliminated from the curriculum.

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Trends

Pregnant Workers Keep Seniority, May Lose Pay, Court Says

A worker may not lose seniority for the time she is on maternity leave, the Supreme Court has said in the case of *Nashville Gas Co.* v. *Satty*. Her right to sick pay is not guaranteed by Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, however, unless she can show that her employer is withholding the pay to invidiously discriminate against one sex.

Pregnant teachers' sick pay is still protected by Title IX regulations, according to the NEA Office of General Counsel. HEW's regulations for Title IX, unlike those for Title VII, were authorized by Congress.

School Use of TV Instruction Grows

Television was a tool in the instruction of about 15 million elementary and secondary school students—a third of the total enrollment—during the 1976-77 school year. This finding comes from an NEA-endorsed survey conducted by the Corporation for Public Broadcasting and the National Center for Education Statistics.

About half the teachers and administrators surveyed said TV instruction was a good thing. Only 1 in 10 thought it was bad, and the rest had no opinion.

TV programs were available for classroom use by 1.6 million teachers during the year of the survey, mostly through public TV, videotape or films, or commercial stations.

Energy Center Opens in Office of Education

The Energy and Education Action Center, opened this winter in the U.S. Office of Education, is to serve as an information and technical support clearinghouse, providing schools with help in setting energy standards and in setting up and getting funds for projects to save energy. The Office will also support both training of energy specialists and projects to educate citizens about energy.

South Carolina Plans To Equalize Local School Spending

An Educational Finance Act designed to ensure the availability of at least a defined minimum educational program for every student in the public schools will go into effect in South Carolina this year. The South Carolina Education Association was closely involved in drafting and securing passage of the Act, which includes a state minimum salary schedule for teachers. Over a period of several years, it will also lower the average pupil-teacher ratio in primary-level reading and math classes to 20:1.

Using new state funds taken off the top of expected general revenue growth, the Act will provide school districts enough funds, weighted by the special needs of students, to keep ahead of inflation. Districts will be required to make a financial effort based on an index of tax-paying ability. They will then receive any funds they need to lift per-pupil expenditures to specified amounts.

Postsecondary Institutions Must Give Consumer Information

Colleges and postsecondary vocational schools must give students consumer information about financial assistance, according to new regulations from the U.S. Office of Education. Schools that participate in and are eligible for allowances to administer financial aid programs under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 must use these allowances first to give prospective and enrolled students information about financial aid, costs, refunds, eligibility and criteria for awarding financial aid, and other subjects of consumer interest. Whatever funds are left over can be used for administration.

Teacher Corps Will Train Whole Faculties

The Teacher Corps will switch from recruiting and training beginning teachers for low-income students to training whole staffs of schools at all levels in low-income localities, under the Education Amendments of 1976. The Corps will now provide five years of training instead of two. The first 80 projects, to train 12,000 teachers, are to begin in the 1978-79 school year.

HEW, USOE Cut Red Tape

Beginning in October 1977, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's "Operation Common Sense" has been reviewing existing regulations and revising them where necessary. The Operation also specifies ways to get regulations written faster and with more timely and useful consultation.

At the same time, Education Commissioner Ernest Boyer has ordered a cut of 50 percent in the paperwork required of schools and colleges participating in USOE programs and announced a new procedure to award most grants faster.

College Attrition Slows

Students who graduated from high school and entered college in 1972 were less likely to drop out than were students in previous classes, according to a study conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics. After two years, 23.5 percent of the 1972 enrollees had withdrawn from four-year institutions and 39.3 percent from two-year ones.

Students with full-time jobs were almost twice as likely as others to drop out. When socioeconomic factors were taken into account, black, Hispanic, and white students in four-year institutions were about equally likely to withdraw.

Big City Enrollment Declines Vary Widely

Enrollment in the public schools of St. Louis and San Francisco dropped about 22 percent between 1970 and 1975, while enrollment in New York City schools dropped only 3.8 percent, reports New York's City Planning Commission. The Commission studied enrollment trends in the nation's 15 largest cities.

New York's relatively slow rate of decline is a result of the city's continuing role as a magnet for immigrants, according to an author of the Commission's report.

Dallas, Los Angeles, and Chicago each lost less than 7 percent of its pupils while losses ranged from 10 to 15 percent in Philadelphia, Washington, Boston, Houston, Milwaukee, Baltimore, New Orleans, Detroit, and Cleveland.

Job Prospects for New Teachers Are Slim, Magazine Asserts

Between now and 1985, says the November 1977 issue of *Money* magazine, the job market for college graduates as a whole will be extremely tight with 1 out of 4 graduates not expected to get the type of jobs college graduates usually get. Compared to other fields the chance for placement as teachers, librarians, and college professors—

among others—is likely to be poor, while doctors and systems analysts are among the professionals who will be in relatively greater demand. The magazine based its predictions on previously unpublished growth estimates from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, probable supply-demand ratios, and salaries.

The teaching profession (K-12) will grow just .3 percent in the next eight years, says the Bureau, because the demand for high school teachers will decrease by 11 percent. While the Bureau projects that the number of college professors will grow by 2.9 percent, the tremendous number of graduates seeking these jobs makes employment prospects in this field also very poor.

School Nurses Seek Parenting Curriculums

Because it believes that parenting skills and knowledge of child development are essential in long-range prevention of child abuse and neglect, the Department of School Nurses, an affiliate of the National Education Association, is exploring sources of available curriculum in parenthood education, child development, family living, and related courses.

With funds appropriated by the NEA, the Department has established a network of school nurses throughout the country to assist in identifying and reviewing available curriculums. Later, these nurses will be encouraged to promote parenting skills courses in the schools.

The Department also is soliciting the cooperation and support of those organizations and agencies engaged in working with handicapped children to provide protection for, and prevent abuse of, the exceptional child.

Suggestions on parenting curriculums are welcome. Send them to Katherine Duron, Department of School Nurses, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

May 3 Is Sun Day

It's a Wednesday on the calendar, but May 3, 1978, will be Sun Day, too. Observances will begin with a celebration on Maine's Cadillac Mountain, where the sun first hits the United States, and will progress across the nation with teach-ins, demonstrations, and energy fairs to inform the public about the advantages of solar energy and to promote solar energy development. Sun Day is being coordinated by a coalition of NEA, environmentalists, consumers, and other groups.

For information about solar energy or about Sun Day activities in your area, write Sun Day, Suite 1100, 1028 Connecticut Ave., Washington, DC 20036.

Action Against Sex Discrimination Lags

The federal government's effort to end illegal sex discrimination in U.S. schools has been negligible, charges the Project on Equal Education Rights (PEER) of the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund. Reporting on a year-long study, PEER says that since Title IX, which outlaws sex discrimination in educational institutions, was passed in 1972, most cases have been initiated by citizens rather than by HEW, and only 21 percent of them have been investigated and resolved.

Furthermore, according to the PEER study, long delays and cursory investigations have been common.

Students Want More Help from Their Schools

School should have provided more help for students who were having trouble with subjects like math and reading, said nearly 60 percent of the 17-year-olds who responded to a questionnaire from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Forty percent said school should have placed more emphasis on basic academic subjects; about the same proportion called for more emphasis on vocational and technical programs.

School should help students find jobs when they leave, said 42 percent, but 31 percent felt that school had not in fact given them counseling that would help them find employment.

Families Watch TV in Workshops

A community's parents and children meet to watch TV together when they take part in a Parent Participation TV Workshop. Sponsored by Teachers Guides to Television with the cooperation of NEA and several other groups of educators, the workshops bring groups to a school, church, or community center to watch and then discuss programs. Discussion leaders show parents how to use TV to open communication with their children.

To get materials for organizing Parent Participation TV Workshops in your community, write a request on the letterhead of your local association, school, PTA, church, or other group, saying you want to organize a workshop and will report on it afterward. The Workshop address is Teachers Guides to Television, P.O. Box 564, Lenox Hill Station, New York City 10021.

Project Aims To Promote Women Administrators

Probably the first national project to help women get and hold school superintendencies is training 75 women administrators in applying for positions and in developing self-confidence, job survival skills, and management techniques. The project, sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators and funded by the Ford Foundation, will also provide support teams for four new women superintendents this year and four more next year. At present, 5 percent of superintendents and assistant superintendents are women.

OE Establishes Learning Center and Coordinating Teams

The Horace Mann Learning Center and six interbureau teams are beginning operation in the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) early this year. The Center will provide education—both career development and, through universities, academic degrees—for USOE employees and will sponsor lectures and seminars on education. The interbureau teams will coordinate USOE work on basic skills, teacher education, teaching resources, gifted and talented students, urban high schools, and school-community relations.

Graduate Fellowships Go to Future Teachers

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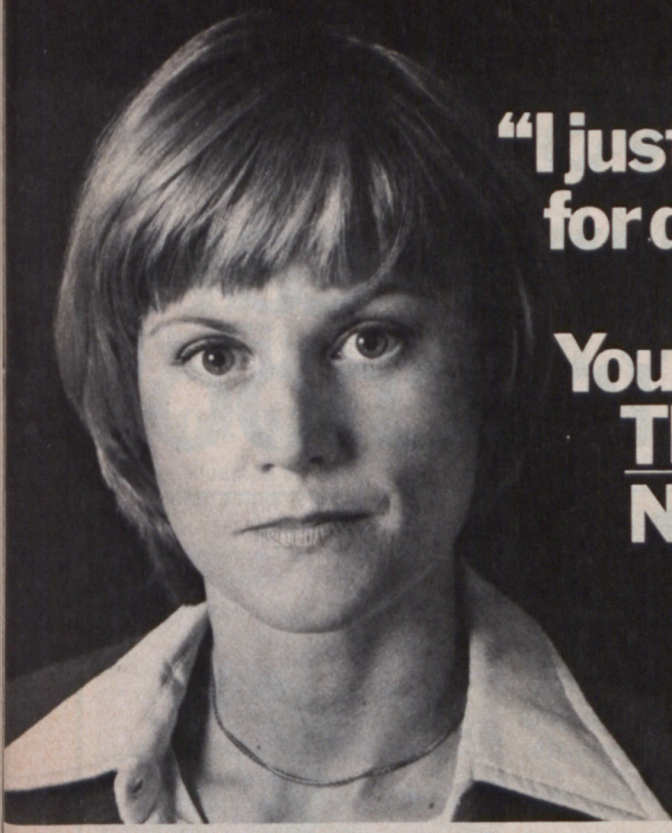
For information, write Danforth Graduate Fellowship Program, the Danforth Foundation, 222 South Central Ave., St. Louis, MO 63105. □



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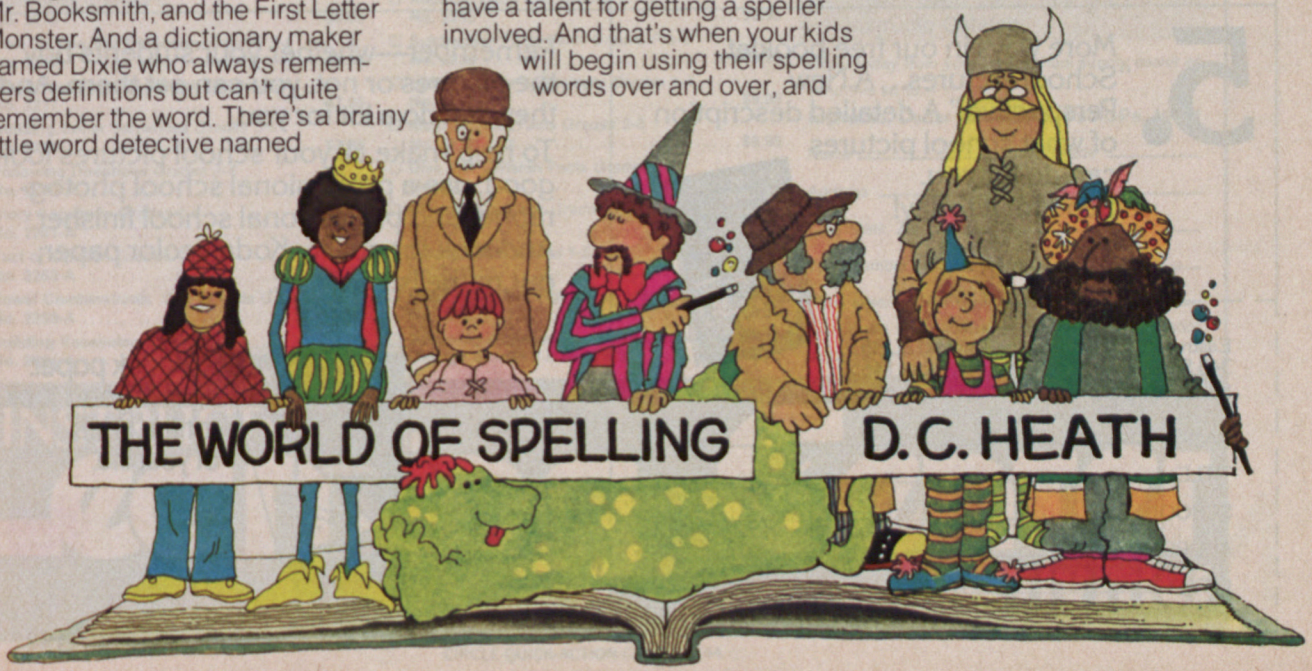

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Letters

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Alternatives to Alternatives

The alternative school movement does not need to take a new direction, Allan Glatthorn to the contrary ("On Finding Some Real Alternatives," November-December). Ideas, as Whitehead explained, run a course from the Romance Stage through the Precision Stage to the Adventure Stage. Most alternative schools are in the first two stages; a few of the older ones are moving into the third.

We have spent several years digging deeper into the bedrock of basic issues about schools, learning, and human relationships. What we do not need is to move on to finding some other alternatives.

—Leonard J. Solo, *master, Cambridge (Massachusetts) Alternative Public School.*

Student Suicide

The authors of "The Student Suicide Epidemic" (September-October) link depression and suicide. In adults, depression can be caused by stress, and stress imposes greater demands for nutrients, according to nutritionists and doctors.

Teenagers experience greater demand for nutrients because of the stresses of changes in their bodies, their emotions, and their life-styles—yet part of their life-style is junk food. They are in double jeopardy—their need for nutrients is greater, but they're getting less. Junk food may be contributing to teenage suicide.

—Mary E. Lynn Drew, *interrelated resource teacher, Cornelia (Georgia) Elementary School.*

"The Student Suicide Epidemic" offers valuable information and some sound advice. I was disturbed, however, that the authors seem to have a low opinion of child guidance clinics because they are not staffed by psychiatrists and psychologists.

Most such clinics do have such professionals either on their staffs or as consultants. More important, clinical social workers are well-trained to deal with adolescents who have suicidal thoughts. In fact, they provide more direct mental health services to patients nationally than do psychiatrists or psychologists. Teachers should feel comfortable referring a child to a child guidance clinic or a community mental health center when the need arises, as, alas, it so often does.

—Stephen L. White, *clinical director, St. Joseph's Hospital Mental Health Center, and clinical instructor of psychiatry, University of South Florida, College of Medicine, Tampa.*

Last year a Committee of 14 formed by our student council developed a program, "The Forgotten Student," to help make students and faculty aware of the rise in the teenage suicide rate. Already it has been presented to several thousand student council members in Texas.

The program's opening and closing speeches express our concern about the rise in the teenage suicide rate and suggest ways to reach students before they become statistics. We show the film *Cipher in the Snow*, and five students describe the way it feels to be rejected in various situations.

Our program stresses the importance of reaching out to students who need to feel that they have friends to lean on—another student or a teacher, counselor, or principal. We feel that involving the student in various aspects of high school life will give a reason to live and help overcome momentary depressions.

—Jo Beth Wisrodt, *student council sponsor, Ball High School, Galveston, Texas.*

Energy and the Schools

Dr. Boyer's article ("Energy," September-October) is forcefully written and very convincing. My only suggestion is that its implications be broadened to include all the global, or survival, issues—population; food supply; weather; the threat of nuclear war; economic imbalance between rich and poor nations; and air, soil, and water pollution. Teachers should work to build a broad base of understanding and support for resolute action on these issues.

—Woodrow C. Whitten, *retired educator, Solana Beach, California.*

All too often, my colleagues and I are frustrated in our endeavors to carry out

programs needed to abate pollution and conserve energy because of the sheer ignorance of policymakers and ultimately the general public. Public education can play a key role in solving the world's energy and environmental problems by supplying the facts—and concentrating on the need to plan long-term preventive measures rather than suggesting naive "cures" for short-term emergencies.

I urge teachers to take advantage of the expertise of many governmental agencies. We need each other and can make each other's jobs a lot easier.

—Robert Waz, *senior engineer, State of Connecticut Department of Environmental Protection, Hartford.*

Values, Morals, and Kids

"Can Schools Teach Kids Values?" (September-October) is a good brief overview of the current state of the field in the United States. As Etzioni points out, the progress of the field depends less on polemics about psychological theory than on empirical research, educators' innovations, and the variation in hidden and overt moral education curriculums in the country as a whole.

A few minor corrections: The American Bar Association disseminates not only law-related curriculums evaluated by the degree of students' deference toward the police, but others evaluated by their stimulation of moral and practical reasoning. Then, to say that "lifeboat dilemmas" teach students "to throw people overboard" is like banning books which mention sex on the grounds that they teach promiscuity. Such dilemmas are intended to stimulate conflict and higher levels of moral reasoning.

Finally, I agree with Etzioni's conclusion that moral education implies restructuring the school to be more democratic and just.

—Lawrence Kohlberg, *professor of education and social psychology, Harvard University Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts.*

Traveling in East Asia

My wife and I were given every opportunity to view all aspects of education at every level when we went on the NEA International Institute to East Asia ("Exploring the Exotic East," September-October). We were most impressed by the hospitality everyone showed us in Japan. Our host families made us welcome and went out of their way to show us how Japanese families live.

It felt strange to give up our passports at the border of the People's Republic of China and not see them again until

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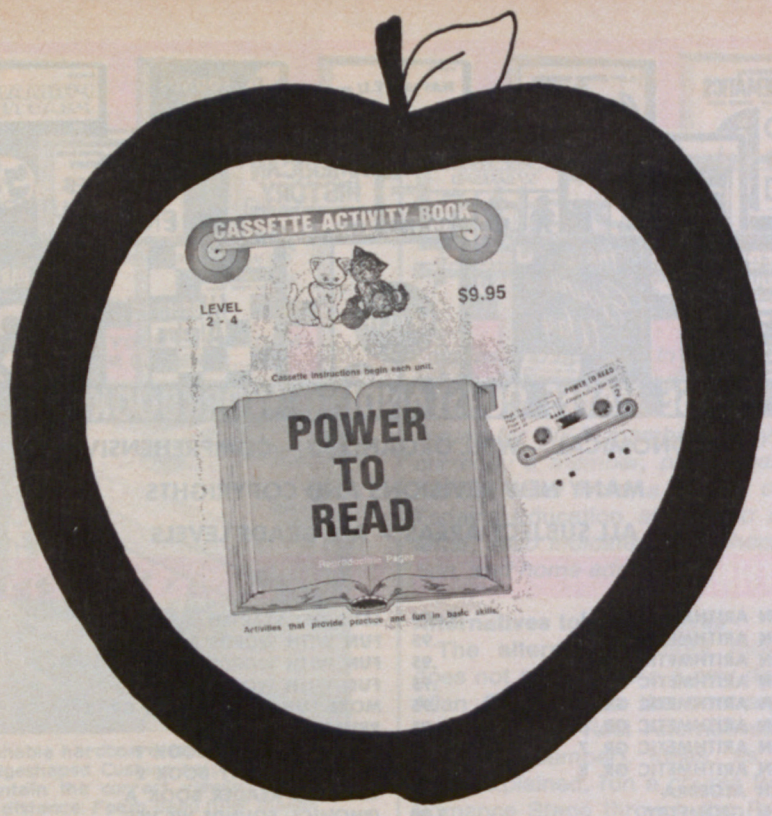

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Letters

(continued)

we left, but we could not have asked for more courteous treatment while we were there.

—Harold R. Loe, *fifth grade teacher, Maple Elementary School, Springfield, Oregon.*

Child Abuse

"What Can Be Done About Child Abuse?" (September-October) is comprehensive and does not shy away from the problems of reporting and follow-up on abuser families. A few comments: The author criticizes judges for returning children to their homes. This is not bad, however, if there are support services to rehabilitate the family. Breaking up a family can compound the tragedy for each member.

Parents Anonymous (PA) has a toll-free nationwide hotline (800-421-0353) which helps callers make arrangements with local agencies. PA also needs people like teachers to sponsor self-help groups.

For more information, write Parents Anonymous at 2810 Artesia Boulevard, Redondo Beach, CA 90278.

—Garold Faber, M.D., *County of Los Angeles Department of Health Services, South Bay Regional Service, Hawthorne, California.*

TV and Students

A part of the appeal of Ms. Feinberg's article ("The Classroom's No Longer Prime Time," September-October) is its lack of bitterness, to which as an English teacher she is amply entitled. Anyone who can read—a qualification which may eliminate most of those in need of her message—can understand what she says.

As an employer, I find it most discouraging to try to find young people who can sustain attention long enough to prepare a layout proposal or present a written quotation that can be understood. In business, the written word can never be replaced.

—Dale Madson, *Billings, Montana.*

This is my thirtieth year of teaching, and what a change the years have brought! Most students take no pride in work well done. Their attention span is short, their listening ability neglected. My son, a third year junior high teacher, says this is true of his students, too.

—Elinor Keesling, *fifth grade teacher, McKinley School, Liberal, Kansas.*

When we discussed TV for preschool children in a high school child guidance class, students bared their own attitudes about TV. Some who show no reaction to other subjects become vehement in defense of their "individual right" to watch TV. Some sincerely believe that TV situations are realistic—that violence is an effective way to solve problems and that family problems work out as they do on the soaps. Many were belligerent toward a resource person who discussed (not promoted) the PTA stand on program improvement.

—Marilyn Moore, *home economics department chairman, Central High School, Elkhart, Indiana.*

Ms. Feinberg's point about learning having always to be entertaining is well taken. A balance must be made between the fantasy of the TV world and the reality of life.

—William Lemmey, *social studies teacher, Hicksville (New York) High School.*

Many times I feel that in order to keep the attention of my students I must choreograph a nightclub show—then I am not sure whether they are educated or merely entertained. I try to teach my Mass Media class to be better consumers of the media, and I plan to take Ms. Feinberg's article to class and get my students' ideas about it. Maybe the problem can be solved only by teaching young people that they have a responsibility to monitor the media.

—Linda Cates, *chairman, Language Arts, Fruita Monument High School, Fruita, Colorado.*

If secondary classes were on TV prime time, a discriminating audience would cancel more than half after the first showing. If students have no standards of excellence for TV or literature, teachers must bring these standards into their teaching.

Television is not going to go away. The conscientious teacher will make his classes more appealing, more action-oriented, more student-centered than TV. The day I can't compete with a TV set I'll get out of teaching.

—Rodney H. Oppriecht, *speech, theater arts, and humanities teacher, Winona (Minnesota) High School.*

My 16 years experience with junior high students leads me to suggest that Ms. Feinberg was, if anything, too reserved in her assumptions.

—Larry M. Clifford, *teacher-principal, Howell Mountain Elementary School District, Angwin, California.*

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Letters

(continued)

When I started teaching 12 years ago most of the students and their parents were interested in one another and in education. No longer. I have given up trying to teach English; I teach seventh grade history with audiovisual aids and a text with a fifth grade vocabulary (which most students can fathom, given enough time). They either cannot or will not do homework, so why bother to assign it?

I am a good teacher, but I am not an actress, so many of the students are tuned out. There is no way I can compete with television and apathy.

—Marta L. Grenfell, *teacher, Mills Junior High School, Rancho Cordova, California.*

One cannot cure a disease; one must cure the patient. TV will change when viewers change their attitudes toward it and influence the TV industry accordingly.

Teachers must try to educate students (and their parents) about TV and its power to influence. Maybe then we will stop using TV as a sound curtain, a boredom relief, or a babysitter and by our collective pressure bring about changes in an industry whose potential for excellence is unmatched but as yet unfulfilled.

—Donovan R. Walling, *chairman, Department of English, Farnsworth Junior High School, Sheboygan, Wisconsin.*

If TV's power is as awesome as people say, contemporary education must make it a positive force in a student's life. Producers and local program directors will continue to be guided by the need to survive in the marketplace. Whether the medium will therefore continue to have a disastrous impact on the classroom, however, is up to the teacher.

Written reports and classroom discussion can be based on assigned TV viewing. Children's passivity can be removed through physical and mental participation in improvisatory drama based on TV viewing.

Finally, a witty teacher or classroom drama may not be the panacea for the ills of TV influence on children; sincerity and awareness are.

—Richard G. Adams, *professor in drama and chairman, Speech and Drama Department, California Lutheran College, Thousand Oaks.* ☐

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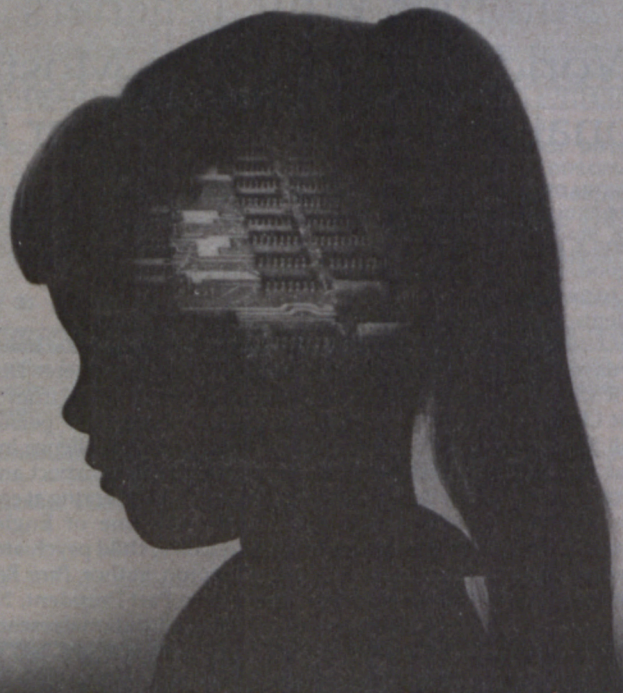

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Member Opinion Poll

School Violence

Fifty-four thousand NEA members were physically attacked in the last school year; 144,000 had their personal property maliciously damaged; and 56,000 were employed in schools where violence was a major problem. These estimates are based on data from a 1977 NEA Membership Survey.

A selected sample of members responded to two survey questions on school violence. The questions and results follow:

• Is student violence a problem in your school?

To 3.1 percent, it was a major problem; to 24.4 percent, a minor problem; and to 71.1 percent, not a problem. Proportionately, more urban members (42.5 percent) reported school violence as a major or minor problem than suburban (29.5 percent) or rural (22.6 percent) members. Secondary teachers (35.4 percent) indicated a greater incidence of violence in their schools than did elementary teachers (21.1 percent).

• Have you been physically attacked or have you had your personal property maliciously damaged by a student this year?

Three percent said they had been physically attacked. Proportionally, members working in urban areas (5.8 percent) reported a greater incidence of attacks than those working in rural (2.3 percent) or suburban (1.7 percent) communities. Eight percent said their personal property had been maliciously damaged. Secondary teachers (12.0 percent) reported a greater incidence of such episodes than did elementary teachers (5.2 percent). Among urban members, the incidence of losses was 11.6 percent, almost twice as high as among their rural or suburban colleagues.

In answers to other questions, three-quarters of the members who had been physically attacked said they had not required medical attention. Nine in 10 (94.6 percent) said they had not missed time from school, and all but two respondents who had required medical attention had had all their medical expenses covered by health insurance.

—NEA Research.

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Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.

Does the structure of a classroom task influence a teacher's approach to classroom governance?

Very much, according to this small study of two third and two fourth grade classrooms. The way a classroom task is structured may determine whether teachers need to be authoritarian or democratic.

The study contrasted two task structures, recitation and multitask. In the recitation structure, students had to listen to a question, raise their hands, be recognized, and answer the question. In the multitask structure, students were involved simultaneously in a variety of activities, including independent and group work.

Four teachers were selected for observation for one hour per day for 21 days. Two of the teachers were known to use mostly recitation in their classrooms, the other two used mostly multitask structures. The observations showed that the two teachers who used mostly recitation in their classrooms spent much of their time authoritatively controlling student behavior, but the two teachers who used mostly multitask structures ran a democratic classroom.

The study didn't stop there, however—the researcher also looked at the "authoritarian" teachers' behavior during the few times they were using the multitask structure and at the "democratic" teachers' behavior during the few times they were using the recitation structure. With the switch in task structure came a switch in teacher behavior—the authoritarian teachers turned democratic, the democratic turned authoritarian.

Although the study should now be replicated with much larger samples, it has definite implications for research on teacher behavior and for teacher applications in the classroom. Researchers on teacher behavior have usually assumed that teacher personality and style are among the main factors that must change if teacher behavior is to change. This study implies that a change in task structure—which may be a lot easier to make—will produce a change in teacher behavior.

As for teachers, those who go home drained after a long day of struggling to maintain control might want to consider using a multitask classroom structure more often.

See Steven T. Bossert. "Tasks, Group Management, and Teacher Control Behavior: A Study of Classroom Organization and Teacher Style." *School Review* 85: 552-64; August 1977.

Do some testing and grading techniques improve student motivation?

Teachers can motivate students by using different testing and grading techniques. The teacher-author of this article cites the following:

- Mistake counts. As students finish their tests, they bring them to the teacher's desk. The teacher indicates the number of answers that are wrong (not which ones are wrong) and returns the papers. Students must examine their work to find and correct the mistakes.
- Paired questions in teacher-made multiple-choice tests. The correct answer to the second question has the same letter as that to the first question. The third and fourth questions are paired the same way, and so on throughout the test. Students answer one question in each pair first and use the second question as a check. The procedure encourages students to examine their answers critically. When marking the test, the teacher can treat each pair of questions as one item.
- Optional test questions. Usually, when a class takes a test, some students zip through it and then sit around bored. If a test contains optional questions that are very difficult, these students can continue working and learning. The author offers a formula for grading that ensures that the extra credit these students earn doesn't lower other students' grades.

See Donald W. Stover. "Testing and Grading: Procedures for Improved Student Motivation." *Mathematics Teacher* 70: 498-503; September 1977.

Will students' racial attitudes change as they go through school?

Yes, according to the results of this study of 5,770 eighth, tenth, and twelfth graders, some black and some white. The study measured the students' racial attitudes and the attitudes they perceived of their parents, friends, and community racial group. The racial attitudes of eighth graders, both black and white, correlate more with their parents'

attitudes than with the attitudes of their friends and their racial group in the community. Among tenth and twelfth graders, however, racial attitudes begin to correlate more strongly with the attitudes of friends and community.

These results imply that schools can accelerate positive attitude change. The author suggests that since friends' racial attitudes become more important as students grow older, classrooms can provide biracial interaction to encourage students to accept people from another race more readily and to form reference groups of friends—even if only of their own race—among whom such acceptance is the norm. Also, teachers and administrators can display attitudes and behave in ways that show acceptance among adults.

See Charles S. Bullock, III. "Maturation and Change in the Correlates of Racial Attitudes." *Urban Education* 12: 229-38; July 1977.

Does attending preschool have long-range benefits for disadvantaged children?

Very much so, according to this preliminary report of a research team studying children and teenagers who had participated in experimental preschool programs similar to Head Start some 10 years previously. Comparing 452 children from five different preschool programs to their control groups, the researchers found that a significantly smaller percentage of the program children had been assigned to special education classes and a significantly smaller percentage had been held back a grade in school.

See Irving Lazar, Ruth Hubbell, Harry Murray, Marilyn Rosche, and Jacqueline Royce. "Preliminary Findings of the Developmental Continuity Longitudinal Study." Paper presented at the "Parents, Children, and Continuity" Conference, sponsored by HEW's Office of Child Development, El Paso, Texas, May 1977.

How does high or low self-concept influence classroom behavior?

This study of 53 elementary children in two classrooms supports the findings of previous studies—students with a high opinion of themselves spend more of their time working on tasks than students with a low opinion of themselves, whose behavior is more frequently aimless.

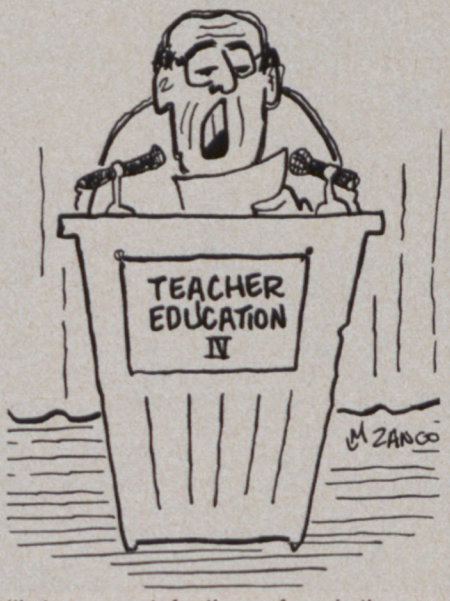
The authors consider this pattern that connects self-concept and behavior to be a feedback loop—that is, students with a high opinion of themselves behave in a task-oriented way that earns them rewards, and the rewards, in turn, further improve their self-concepts. The problem for teachers, of course, is how to get students with a low opinion of themselves into this kind of feedback loop.

See Nancy Shiffler, Judith Lynch-Sauer, and Lorraine Nadelman. "Relationship Between Self-Concept and Classroom Behavior in Two Informal Elementary Classrooms." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 69: 349-59; 1977.

Has student tutoring proved to be effective?

Absolutely, according to this brief review of the results of pupil-tutoring programs. The author says that studies involving older students tutoring younger ones show that—

- Tutoring works well in many content areas.
- More structured programs work better than less structured programs.
- Students in these programs usually



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Research Clues

(continued)

show cognitive gains, which are often large.

• Both tutors and tutees usually show positive attitude changes.

The main task now, says the author, is to investigate more applications of tutoring—a task requiring teacher initiation and participation.

See Ralph J. Melaragno. "Pupil Tutoring: Directions for the Future." *Elementary School Journal,* 384-87, May 1977.

Does team teaching increase students' academic achievement?

This review of research covers 15 years of team-teaching studies. According to the author, advocates have assumed that improvement in students' academic performance is the strength of team teaching—but this assumption is not supported by empirical research. The author's conclusion with regard to academic achievement is that there's little evidence to "provide solace either for team teaching's critics or its most ardent supporters."

See David G. Armstrong. "Team Teaching and Academic Achievement." *Review of Educational Research* 47: 65-86; Winter 1977.

Are elementary school classrooms "joyless" places?

Not the fifth and sixth grade classrooms in a suburban school district that were the scenes of this study. The 257 students in the sample liked school, felt good about themselves, and thought their teachers liked them—and their teachers did like them.

The students are representative of average students in the schools, and the district itself seems representative of suburban districts in general. The findings cannot, of course, be generalized to secondary schools or to urban elementary schools, but they do, as the author says, provide balance for the notion that schools are grim, joyless, and repressive institutions.

See Mary E. Bredemeier. "Happy Classrooms or Joylessness?" *Education* 97: 192-98; Winter 1976. □

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"Here's to Children

A famous author describes—with great affection—

I am sitting in the large auditorium of the Union of Soviet Writers in Moscow, watching a Russian play adapted from my book, *Up the Down Staircase.* Although the cast had disbanded for the summer, they have returned to give this one performance in June of 1977 in honor of my visit. I find myself as moved as is the rest of the audience by the young, miniskirted teacher and her boisterous pupils, one with face sooted to portray a black student, one with face painted brown to denote a Puerto Rican; for in spite of certain excesses and distortions, what shines through is the glowing feeling of affection, of deep caring.

"Happy families are all alike," so opens Tolstoi's *Anna Karenina:* "every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way." Good teachers, I think, whatever their country or language, are all alike in their dedication to their profession and commitment to the young. I speak not as an expert or as a political or social commentator; my impressions are limited to my personal observations on two separate visits to the Soviet Union. In the spring of 1968, shortly after *Up the Down Staircase* was translated into Russian, I was invited there to spend my

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By BEL KAUFMAN
Teacher, Public Speaker, Writer, Author of the Long-Time Best Seller Up the Down Staircase.

Everywhere!"

her visits with children in the Soviet Union.

royalty rubles, which were many; for the book—although it describes a typically American school—enjoyed wide popularity in that country, perhaps because neither bureaucracy nor love for children is alien to the Russian people. In May and June of 1977, I was invited again, as a guest of the Union of Soviet Writers, and because I speak fluent Russian, when I visited schools and camps I was able to talk with teachers, school administrators, librarians—above all, with the children.

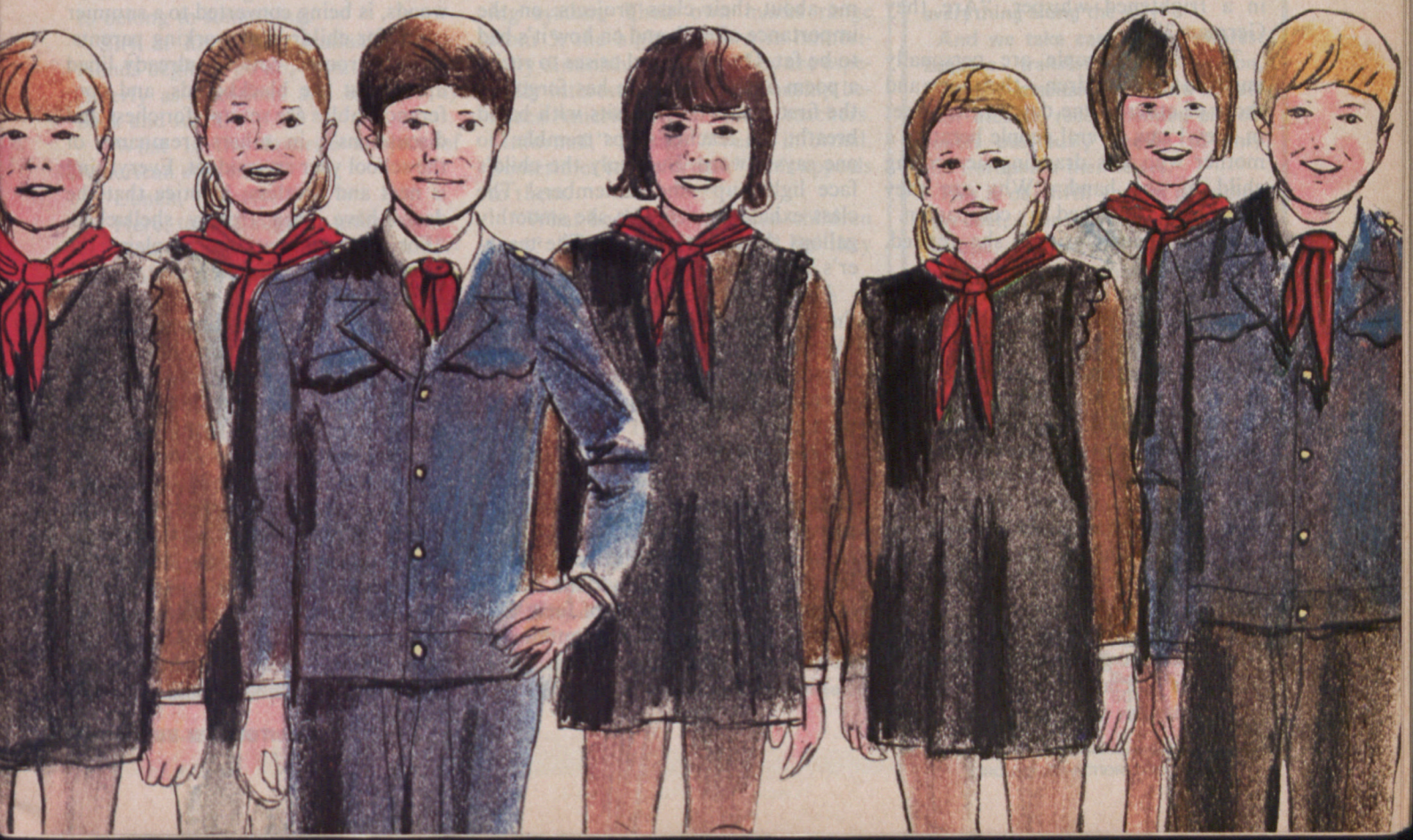
A teacher in whose home in Moscow I dined told me of her first semester in school when, in the middle of a class in which her pupils were diligently writing compositions, the director of the school entered, looked around, approached her desk, and leaned down to whisper in her ear, "Irina Mikhailovna, you will never be a teacher!"

Shocked, she went to see him after class: "What was wrong? My children were writing quietly."

"Ah, yes," the director replied, "but when children write, the teacher does not look out of the window; she looks at her children—with affection."

This may seem as farfetched to us Americans as the scene I myself witnessed: the teacher arrived in her classroom on that particular morning resplendent in a

Artwork based on photos by Sidney J. Gluck



velvet dress, her hair carefully coiffed. "Children," she said to the astonished class, her voice trembling with emotion, "today we begin to read our great Russian poet Pushkin."

I doubt that any American teacher would dress in a cocktail gown to introduce the poetry of Robert Frost to her class, but it's the *feeling* of this teacher we recognize; it's the *feeling* of the director we understand.

The affection of Russians for their children is evident everyplace, in private homes and public places as well as in schools, where attention is lavished upon them from early infancy in public nurseries throughout the rest of their schooling. Children are treasured—especially after the devastation of war, the scars of which have been passed down unto the third generation. At a matinee performance of the ballet *Spartacus* in Leningrad, during the battle scene of Romans killing slaves, I heard a little girl sitting in front of me in a pink starched dress with matching ribbon bows in her hair ask her mother in a frightened whisper, "Are they Germans?"

The Soviet people are personally involved with children—their own and those of others. One day on the street in Kiev I saw several people berating a mother who was dragging her crying child by the hand. "Why are they interfering?" I asked my companion.

"It's not interfering," she replied, "it's *caring*."

Even authors of children's books make personal contact with their readers; it is customary for them to travel periodically from city to city, often covering vast distances, to address their small readers, answer their questions, and hear their suggestions. Children's books are beautifully illustrated and cost mere kopeks. Russians are avid readers; new books are sold out immediately and are then passed, like precious heirlooms, from hand to hand.

It starts early, this love of books, from the first grade, when the seven year olds officially begin their education with seriousness, high expectations, and flowers for teacher.

A visit is arranged for me to School No. 752 on the outskirts of Moscow. I am met by the director of the school, a warm, motherly woman, and by the teacher of second grade—her replica. Though school is practically over for the summer, one class of eight year olds is awaiting me. The children wear red kerchiefs around their necks and a look of solemn expectancy on their scrubbed little faces. As we enter, they rise. I comment on this formality. "It's not formality," the director replies, "it's politeness."

I chat with the children: the impishly grinning boy, the shy girl with huge, eloquent eyes, the two identical boys, smug in their twinship. How come I speak Russian? they ask. "I've been in Moscow three whole days!" I reply. After a puzzled second or two, they laugh. Our laughter breaks the ice.

The children read for me. They tell me about their class projects: on the importance of milk and on how it's bad to be fat. One little girl arises to recite a poem and freezes: she has forgotten the first line. The class sits with bated breath; the teacher's lips tremble; no one says a word. Suddenly the child's face lights up—she remembers! The class exhales in relief as she smoothly gallops through the poem. The teacher's broad Russian face beams.

I ask what they want to be when they grow up. A small boy gets up: "When I was young. . . ." (Giggles from the others.) "I mean, when I was younger, I wanted to be an animal trainer."

"And now?"

"Now"—he frowns with the weight of this decision—"now, engineer on a ship."

Another child plans to be an inventor; the teacher whispers to me that his father is a noted inventor of fuels. Still another confides that her ambition is to work on high floors of buildings.

They ask questions in turn: What do American children like to play? We discuss children's games. "Here, too!" they nod happily. They, too, play jacks—only with small pebbles. They, too, jump rope—only to Russian rhymes. They, too, build campfires where they cook not marshmallows but potatoes.

They are curious: "Are there any zoos in America?"

"Are there many Indians in New York?"

"What is Disneyland like?"

Before I leave, a small boy rises on tiptoe to pin on my lapel a *znachok*, one of the little emblems Russians are fond of, and a girl hands me a bunch of flowers that had been patiently wilting in her warm fist. Another child rattles off an obviously rehearsed speech about friendship between our two countries and the hope that there should be no more wars. He gives me a tiny toy airplane "for safe flight home."

Later we go on a tour of the school, which, because of its location near the woods, is being converted to a summer camp for children of working parents. In some rooms, cots are already lined up against the blackboards, and conference tables are set up "for chess and discussions"; in others, remnants of the school year are evident. Everything is neat and spotless; I notice that the desks have been freshly shellacked. "For the examinations," explains the director. This—like the velvet dress—I understand.

Later still, in the director's office, over the customary refreshments (all business meetings are held around a table laden with food and drink), I learn that recently there has been greater emphasis on the individual development of each child, that math teachers are now equipped with computers to grade papers, that teachers' hours in school vary, depending on the subject, and that their salaries range between 250 and 350 rubles a month (a ruble is about $1.30). Though that is not much, I am reminded that rent is negligible, that medical and other ser-

Good teachers, I think, whatever their country or language, are all alike in their dedication to their profession and commitment to the young.

vices are free, and that teachers get one month's paid vacation. The cherry preserves served with the tea are delicious. "Who made this?" I ask, licking my spoon.

"I did," the director says, smiling.

I had requested to meet students of high school age, so on June 1, 1977—a day proclaimed as Children's Day—more than 10 teenage youngsters from four different school districts, accompanied by two teachers and a librarian, are assembled for me in the House of Books, a huge children's library in Moscow. Some are Young Pioneers, similar to our Scouts; some are Komsomoltze, members of the Young Communist League. Everyone seems to belong to something.

Shy at first, they gradually relax. Hands begin to go up, tentatively, then eagerly as questions and answers fly back and forth.

"What is the favorite subject of American students?"

"Lunch," I reply.

"Here, too!" Laughter unites us.

"How many days a week do American children go to school?"

"Five."

They groan in unison. "We go six!" But justice triumphs: they have three months of summer vacation to our two.

Their ambitions are sophisticated: economist, pianist, teacher of small children, psychologist (a new subject for them, a new profession).

I learn that from the ages of 12 to 14 all are required to take up certain skills—carpentry, dressmaking, automotive mechanics, cooking—in order to learn the values of manual work. Should they not pass their examinations for college or professional school, all of which are free, each is sure of a job.

"How do American children spend their summers?" they ask.

My answer is self-conscious: "If their parents have money, they travel or go to camps and resorts; or if they can, they get summer jobs."

"Otherwise?"

"Otherwise, they—they hang around. Of course," I add, "we have some camps that are free—like yours."

Since physical culture is emphasized in Soviet schools, the children ask about American sports; to my surprise, I have to explain baseball to them.

They are eager to know everything about our schools: hours, exams, marking system. Their own marks range from 5, the highest, down in numerically diminishing merit. They are especially interested in the relationship between American students and teachers. "Informal," I say. "Very informal. Sometimes too informal." This appeals to them.

"What books do American children read? Do they like poetry? Do they know our Soviet writers?"

I shake my head. "You seem to know more about English and American writers." It is true: they are familiar with Shakespeare, Hemingway, Poe, Ray Bradbury (instead of "science fiction," they call it "fantasy," a gentler word). But they know only those books available in translation. No one, not even the teachers or librarian, had ever heard of *A Tale of Two Cities*, though they all knew *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield*.

"Why don't American children read more?" Aye, there's the rub. I indicate some of our social problems reflected

(continued on page 26)

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"Here's to Children Everywhere!"
(continued)

in schools. I mention the language problem of minority groups, rebelliousness against authority, the number of hours usurped by TV. I point out a recent statistic: American children spend as many hours in front of TV as in school. They gasp, incredulous. I ask how many have TV sets at home. All raise their hands. They have only three channels, mostly cultural and educational, with no commercials, of course, and children are allowed to watch only certain programs.

I want to know what they don't like about their schools, what improvements they would suggest. They are hesitant—after all, a couple of their teachers are silently present—but a few courageous souls volunteer information that might have come from any of our American students:

"Too much homework!"

"Two or three hours a day!"

"Sometimes more. . . ."

"Well," adds a judicious voice, "but it's *necessary*!"

"Also, we wish we could express our opinions more, instead of the teacher *telling* us!"

(Here, too! I say to myself, recalling a student of mine who had written, "Teachers are too dictoral and don't let me self-express.")

I ask the teachers for their comments. "No complaints," says one, smiling.

The other, a white-haired man standing tall behind a row of youngsters, says, "I am a history teacher, retiring after 30 years in the classroom." He places one hand gently on the braided blond hair of a girl sitting in front of him and embraces the others with his eyes, "These are my children," he says with pride.

Some of the students express a wish to correspond with American students. I eagerly agree, suggesting that they leave their names and addresses with me. A teacher speaks up, "It's better to send these letters to their schools." The children, however, stand their ground; they want the letters to come to their homes. At the end of our session, which lasts more than three hours, several come up to me and shyly thrust into my hand slips of paper with their names and addresses in beautiful,

(continued on page 28)

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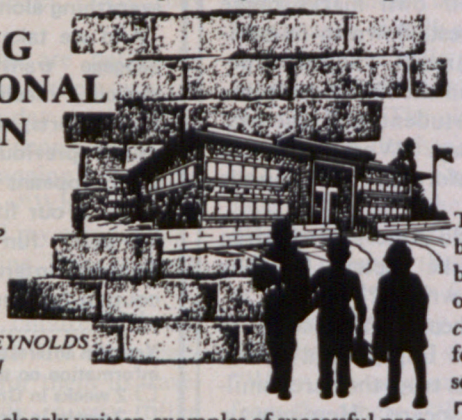

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"Here's to Children Everywhere!"
(continued)

painstaking handwriting.

Before I leave, they present me with flowers and chocolates. I ask what message they want me to take back to students in New York. A skinny boy with a fierce crew haircut jumps up and says sternly, "Tell them not to watch so much TV and to be more serious!"

Impressed as I was, I wondered how representative those youngsters were. Perhaps they had been carefully selected for me, the meetings with them specially structured? As if in reply, something totally unstructured occurred one Saturday morning while I was having breakfast in my hotel room. I turned the TV on to what appeared to be a children's poetry program. A modest, soft-spoken young man briefly introduced each child by name, age, and grade in school, and mentioned the name of the poet and the title of the poem about to be recited. The children, some as young as seven or eight, the oldest in their early teens, stood up in turn and recited from memory poems by well-known Russian poets—recited with the lilting cadence, careful enunciation, and emotional expression so typically Russian. Most of the time, the camera dwelt lovingly on the audience of children, on their uplifted, rapt faces.

With a momentary pang I recalled the usual TV programs offered American children: the strident cartoons, the violence and vulgarity. Little wonder Russian children grow up loving poetry.

It starts early, the poetry and indoctrination. I brought home from one of the schools a syllabus in literature published in Moscow for the 1976-77 school year. It covers grades 4 through 10, the equivalent of ages 10 through 15.

From the very first, moral issues are stressed. In the lower grades, triumph of good over evil is emphasized; in higher grades, more advanced concepts of ethics, but always with a strong political slant and always permeated by love of their native land and Communist morality. Since there are no discipline problems, teachers can teach, but ideology is spelled out for them in the syllabus. Each teacher is required to have a thorough knowledge of Lenin and literature. Lessons are accompanied by supplementary reading and memorization of poetry at home. Parents and librarians are involved in guiding the reading of the students, and at least once a month, literary discussions of books read outside of school are held. In higher classes, oral and written work is emphasized, and films are available in conjunction with the study of literature.

"Ah, yes," the director replied, "but when children write, the teacher does not look out of the window; she looks at her children—with affection."

Obviously, only politically acceptable books are chosen. They start with fairy tales and fables; very early, children become acquainted with their great poets like Pushkin, with their classic authors like Tolstoi, and with the humor and satire of Chekhov and Gogol. Gradually, more complicated works of these authors and of others are studied, as well as foreign literature in translation: Balzac, Brecht, Neruda, among others. In each book, moral responsibility to society is unequivocally stressed.

The strong stand against religion is made explicit. The following is a paragraph from the syllabus which I have translated verbatim:

Literature, especially Soviet literature,

offers the greatest opportunity for antireligious training of students, showing how belief in God morally deforms man, deprives him of his will and confidence in his own strength, makes him weak and defenseless. The teacher's task is to bring out this aspect in literature.

However greatly we may disagree with this emphasis on political and antireligious indoctrination and partisan selection of books, the scope and depth in the study of literature and the level of appreciation described in this syllabus would do credit to our American college courses.

Many questions remain unasked and unanswered. Whether or not the syllabus is faithfully followed I do not know. Much of our own planning looks good on paper, too. Yet it is obvious to me that Soviet children are motivated to learn; they see the necessity for school. They conform, since they are exposed to fewer divergent views than are our students.

Not only is the school involved with the home, the library, the community, the whole society (some schools are "wards" of shops or factories), but the school molds and develops character. Each year standards of character to be met are strictly defined. Attitudes toward learning, social responsibility, self-discipline, obedience—these are inculcated early through outside projects such as service to the community and through projects within the school: students' cleaning and repairing school property, older students' helping younger ones, group competition where the honor of the whole group is at stake, and peer pressures to uphold approved standards of conduct. There is no permissiveness and no neglect. Unlike many of our angry, rebellious, and alienated children, those I met appeared cheerful, friendly, and respectful; affectionate toward their teachers, eager to work, ready to laugh.

My last day in Moscow. I am at a farewell luncheon given for me by members of the Writers Union and editors of Soviet magazines. My hosts propose the customary toasts: to each person at the table, to abstractions such as peace and friendship, and—the toast I hear most often in the USSR—"To the children of all countries."

I drink to that. □

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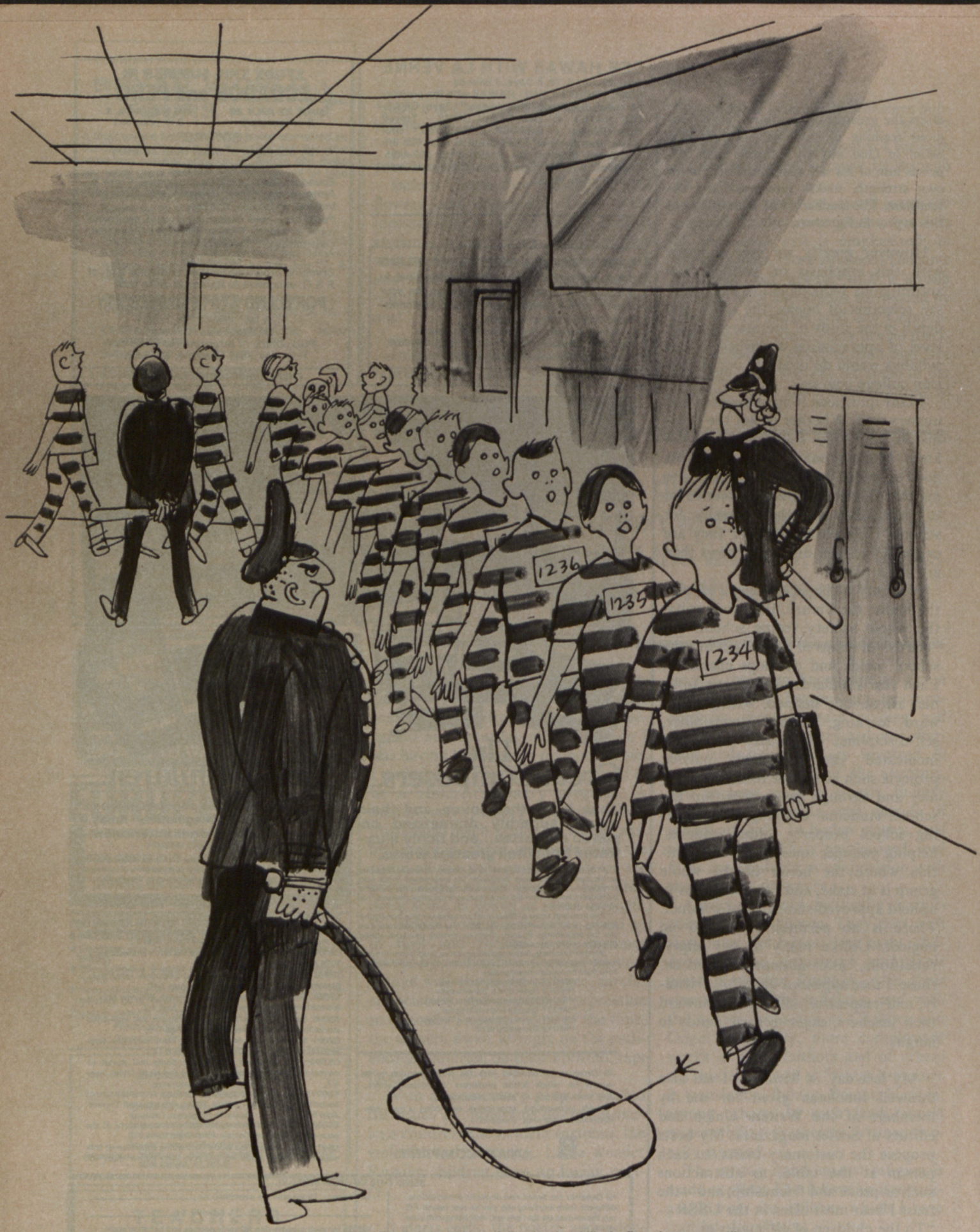

A renewed emphasis on the effective teaching of the basic skills is fine, but some "basics" programs have gone too far toward that old *non sequitur*—autocratic discipline.

The Back-to-the-Basics Impact

News reports that some 20 million American adults are functionally illiterate are difficult to greet with anything but alarm. The need to offer remedial reading courses in college understandably infuriates both taxpayers and private donors who have spent large sums of money to support higher education.

These indicators of massive educational deficiencies—combined with the increasing scarcity of jobs which do not require proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic—have naturally raised serious concern about the schools' effectiveness in teaching the three R's. In addition, the distaste with which many educational as well as political conservatives have viewed the radical and neoprogressive currents of the rebellious sixties—with their open classrooms, their freewheeling alternative schools, their abandonment of grades and competitive quality controls—has built up enough resentment to launch a counterrevolution. All that was needed to create a cause was a slogan. It is "Back to the Basics."

A good many liberal educators and parents, of course, also welcome a stronger emphasis on the teaching—the effective teaching—of the basic skills. Only fools or hopeless romantics could today subscribe to the view that basic skills are no more essential than other skills in which children might show greater interest and that the teaching of the basics therefore deserves no special priority.

Nothing is wrong with reaffirming the fundamental importance of the three R's in the education of every child. What is alarming is the direction the movement is taking in too many minds and too many school systems.

The Back to the Basics pressure coincides with another, far less benign, call—the demand for autocratic discipline, including the use of corporal punishment. "Spare the rod and spoil the child" has always been one of the American conservative's counsels about child rearing and education. Horace Mann incurred the wrath of his less humane (and less intelligent) fellow educators when, after an inspection trip in 1843, he reported with genuine pleasure on the absence of harsh penalties and authoritarian pedagogy in many of the best European schools of that day. Unless education is administered like a lot of bitter pills, answered the illustrious masters of the Boston Latin schools, it is not true education.

Now, once again, that old *non sequitur* is being trotted out in too many school districts in the name of serving the three R's. (The Supreme Court's reaffirmation of corporal punishment's constitutionality only amplifies the tenor of the time.)

- In Prince George's County, Maryland, Back to Basics became a campaign issue when two school board members up for reelection proposed the establishment of alternative elementary schools that would stress the three R's, strictly enforce dress and discipline codes, "outlaw" the new math, and prohibit boys from letting their hair grow below the collar. The proposal died when they failed to win back their seats.
- One prospectus that unfortunately seems typical of too many of the new "basic" schools promises that "passages of classes or groups of students through the halls will be in single file, under adult supervision."
- In another instance, the description of "instructional goals" calls for "systematic, factual, and disciplined subject matter [and] development of mind and character and of the values of truth, justice, and virtue"—an all-too-familiar style of pomposity.

Is justice best served by rigid disciplinary edicts which make little sense to the children on whom they are imposed? Is virtue really embedded in the silent, single-file march from class to class? The entire approach is reminiscent of the motto of earlier antiprogressives: "We teach subjects, not children."

Even the essentially conservative Council for Basic Education, which, as its name implies, is devoted to the teaching of the basic skills, senses that something is wrong with the way a growing number of school boards interpret the concept of basic education. "Some of their programs," the Council's bulletin warns, "contain some simplistic battle cries of doubtful merit, such as 'bring back the paddle,' 'teach truth, justice, and patriotism,' and 'what we need is a dress code.' "

This dispute over pedagogical ideol-

By FRED M. HECHINGER
President, The New York Times Company Foundation, Inc.

ogies, however, can be settled through intelligent arbitration and sensible compromise wherever the parties are willing. A recent study by experts at the University of Lancaster, England, suggests to me what moderates have long suspected: a mixture of progressive and traditional methods may work best for most children and may give teachers the widest possible range of options in shaping their approach to the curriculum and the children.

Far more disconcerting than the open debate on pedagogy, however, is the impact of the Back to the Basics trend on an entirely different educational front and for largely different reasons. The fiscal austerity forced on many school districts by recession, inflation, and declining enrollments has led to a joining of forces between conservatives by conviction (educational as well as political) and people who simply want to cut the budget.

When these groups work together, Back to the Basics becomes a demand for "cutting out the frills," raised as much in response to a general taxpayers' revolt (especially against high property levies) as in support of the puritanical view of education. And what are, in this view, considered "frills"? Almost invariably the first subjects to get the ax are the allegedly esoteric ones, led by music and art.

Let the sports program be curtailed—particularly the varsity variety from which only a small minority derive active benefit as participants—and powerful voices are instantly raised, usually those of the leading opponents of frills. Sports must be reinstated in the name of character building and team spirit, they say.

Marching bands may have a fair chance to survive the battle against frills, but the far more basic, though less publicly visible and audible, music instruction goes by the board.

Throughout the country, school newspapers are struggling to survive the onslaught on frills. Many educational or political conservatives think that those journals and their literary counterparts which publish poetry and fiction are a pain in the neck. Those publications that allow students a modicum of free expression offend too many adults. Why not cut them out?

Foreign languages, too, have felt the pinch. The earlier movement to provide languages in elementary schools is in decline. Ironically, the last major revival of foreign language study was the project of conservative pedagogical leaders. That was in the late 1950's, when alarm over the Soviets' spectacular launching of Sputnik made foreign languages and science suddenly appear to be anything but frills.

The fallacy in the present tendency to strip education down to the three R's, whether for pedagogical or fiscal reasons, is that it can only make the basic skills appear less useful to the children. What is motivation if not getting the learner to connect the effort of acquiring skills with their application to something that is interesting and (if the descendants of the Latin masters will pardon the suggestion) fun? A child's interest in learning to read and write is stifled if the rest of the school program is barren. The stripped-down, no-frills basic curriculum allows for too little transfer of skills to other areas—creative, artistic, or just plain interesting. The harm that can be done to the three R's by the elimination of school newspapers or other extracurricular activities that require basic skills should be evident to everyone concerned.

Frantic efforts to prepare children for reading tests interfere with an effective program in the basic skill of reading. Most such tests are top-heavy with multiple-choice questions that are dull and fail to satisfy intellectual curiosity. When they dominate the curriculum, less time is left for the more interesting and challenging application of newly acquired skills—to social studies, the arts, and of course reading and writing for fun. It is no accident that the most successful ghetto programs in reading often rely heavily on making those connections.

Any successful new emphasis on the basic skills—and liberals as well as conservatives should demand such emphasis—ought to begin with an analysis of the major causes of contemporary deficiences in these skills. Some of the contributing factors, such as lack of stress on the printed word, cannot be corrected by the schools alone. The parent who cannot or will not read to a child at an early age as part of the daily intellectual diet takes the first step in undermining that child's foundation in the basic skills. So does the parent who uses television as a pacifier, without helping to create the link between viewing, reading, and thinking.

Schools and school boards can take direct actions to make the basic skills available, alive, and compelling. The first should be a thorough revamping of the education of those who will bear the prime responsibility for the teaching of skills. Teacher education in those areas should be lifted bodily out of college classrooms and transferred instead into elementary and secondary classrooms.

Equally crucial is another point that unfortunately remains anathema to the antifrills forces. They would like to return to a classroom with as many children as the traffic will bear, one teacher running the show from the desk out front. Experience shows, however, that the most successful way to teach reading is in small groups, with one adult (teacher, assistant teacher, paraprofessional, or even a bright older student) for between five and eight youngsters. This is, furthermore, the only way to reach the hard-to-teach youngsters who come to school without the advantages of a home that has prepared them for the experience. Those who doubt the efficacy of such staffing ought to consider that this is precisely how it's done in virtually all private schools, even though most of their students come to class with much better preconditioning for the basic skills.

The current demands for better teaching of the three R's, then, are confusing a necessary effort to wipe out widespread and severely debilitating deficiencies in basic skills with a counterproductive drive to "restore" the schools to the philosophy that learning should be unpleasant medicine. Admittedly, in the sixties, the pendulum swung too far toward a permissiveness that made a democratic virtue of amorphous absence of standards and quality controls. The way to correct such excesses, however, is to give education a structure that draws its strength from an inherent sense of accomplishment rather than from the negative restrictions of autocratic discipline or the drab concentration on skills. Basic and essential as they are, skills remain only tools with which to manage the multifaceted business of learning, living, and striving. □

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$60 Member Only	35.90	42.50	57.50	95.90	120.50	
Member & Spouse	71.30	84.50	114.50	191.30	240.50	
Member, Spouse, Children	91.70	104.90	130.10	204.50	253.70	
Member & Children ($30 benefit for each child)	56.30	62.90	73.10	109.10	133.70	
$80 Member Only	47.70	56.50	76.50	127.70	160.50	
Member & Spouse	94.90	112.50	152.50	254.90	320.50	
Member, Spouse, Children	122.10	139.70	173.30	272.50	337.10	
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A Back to the Basics issue . . .

(continued)

Minimal Competency Standards

Proficiency in the basic skills, statewide assessment of minimal competency, tests of minimal competency, minimum achievement level testing, or testing of survival skills—no matter how it is described, this back-to-the-basics issue is attracting more and more legislative and public interest.

At the end of 1976, 16 states had taken either legislative or state board action to ensure that minimal competency standards of some type were introduced into the public schools. By the end of 1977, the number had increased to 31. In the first half of 1977, state legislators introduced more than 70 separate bills involving minimal competency standards.

State legislators and state board of education members indicate that interest in setting more rigid standards in the basic skills is coming not only from parents but from other citizens, teachers, school administrators, and local board of education members. The Ninth Annual Gallup Poll of Attitudes Toward Education and some statewide polls tend to support this notion.

To the average citizen, the epitome of the problem is the student who can hardly read and write and yet graduates from high school with a standard diploma. In addition, the public often associates issues such as violence and vandalism in the school, rising school costs, and declining test scores with the need to bring the schools back to the basics.

State Approaches to Minimal Competency Testing. Is the movement the result of a bandwagon approach to education reform? Some educators feel that state board members and legislators are taking action only because other states have mandated some form of activity. These educators feel the movement is the result of an anti-teacher, anti-education mood in the country. Some educators fear that "minimal competency" is really a code for "cut the budget."

While these suspicions can be partially substantiated in some states, in my opinion, the actual legislation or state board rulings give them little support. One legislator remarked that educators are on the defensive, because this is one of the few times in our history when a movement for education reform is being led from the halls of the legislatures rather than from the ivy-covered halls of the universities.

As for the approaches the states have taken to minimal competency testing, it is difficult to find two that are identical. Each state's implementation procedures and the specifics of its legislation are unique—even in Florida and California where early-exit competency test proposals were enacted at about the same time.

In general, each state appears to be adopting legislation or board rulings that conform to the same principles of governance it has already chosen by past action. Those that usually opt for a strong centralized approach to an issue have enacted prescriptive standards for local school districts to meet. States that put more emphasis on local control have tended to pass legislation that gives guidance and responsibility to local boards of education.

In both kinds of states, testimony at legislative and state-board-of-education hearings usually probes the effect this action will have on individual students. As one state department of education official said, "It really depends on whether we want to enforce an arbitrary cut-off score that will penalize kids or whether we want to put together a program that will ensure each student a better education." This official is from a state that is trying to encourage local districts to identify learning deficiencies early and offer remedial instruction, an approach that usually brings nods of approval from educators. Other legislators, however, argue for strong centralized control on the grounds that educators have proven for years that they talk a better remedial game than they can carry out and that pouring more money into the same programs will not really help individual students.

In setting up minimal competency requirements, legislators usually assume that minimal competency tests are already available or that the whole testing issue is something educators should handle. The first assumption is erroneous, and the second ignores the fact that the testing issue is a controversial one in most educational circles today.

Taking these factors into consideration, we easily see why minimal competency testing has become such an explosive issue.

State Action. Among the 31 states that have taken official action in this area, most seem to agree on the identification of basic skill areas. Virtually all mention reading or communications and mathematics. Florida mentions life skills; Rhode Island, survival skills. Colorado leaves all identification of basic skills to the local districts, while California and Florida allow local dis-

By CHRIS PIPHO
Associate Director, Research and Information Department, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colorado.

Warning from Secretary Califano

Basic competency testing will be acceptable and effective only if we stress, along with its benefits, the critical limitations and dangers of testing.

First, like other methods of assessing educational achievement, tests are far from perfect. The beguiling precision of test scores disguises many difficult questions about what tests measure and how well they succeed. Tests are tools—not magic wands. Even with the most sophisticated tests, the assessment of learning will still require sensitive judgments about a child's human development. Tests can help inform such judgments; tests cannot make them.

Second, there is the issue of cultural bias. Tests can prove especially difficult for particular groups of children. . . .

The third basic limitation on the use of tests is that they measure progress toward but a few of the myriad goals we ask our schools to pursue. Not all skills are basic skills; in focusing on minimal competency, we cannot let the minimum become the maximum. We must ensure that students of ability are given a chance to develop to the fullest and that important subjects beyond the three R's are not overlooked.

Academic achievement is but one objective of our schools. Few of us would be happy to see high school graduates who had mastered English literature and trigonometry—but who lacked maturity, self-discipline, honesty, and judgment. Standardized tests can help us measure whether students are learning certain skills; they cannot tell us how well schools are performing other large and important parts of their jobs.

This last limitation is a clear warning against preoccupation with testing which all of us must sound to the public. The purpose of schools is not merely to produce high scores on achievement tests; it is also to educate children, to help teach them to appreciate what is worthwhile, to enable them to extract meaning from future experiences.

—Joseph A. Califano, Jr.,
Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, speaking before the 1977 annual meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board.

tricts to add subject areas at their discretion.

Only Florida and California have enacted legislation that permits early exit from high school. Early-exit laws allow school districts to award the equivalent of a high school diploma to students who pass a designated test, even if the students have not earned the minimum number of credits traditionally required for graduation.

Twenty of the 31 states have minimal competency testing standards that will affect regular high school graduation. These states are Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado (local option), Delaware, Florida, Idaho (local option), Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Nevada, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, and Wyoming.

Grade promotion appears to be tied to minimal competency testing in only four states: Arizona for grade 8; Kentucky for grades 3, 5, 8, and 11; Maryland for grades 3, 7, 9, and 11; and Florida for every grade (but in effect the testing will probably be tied to promotions from grades 3, 5, 8, and 11).

Identification of students who need remedial assistance appears to be a common element in much of the state-mandated action. Twenty-one of the 31 states mention or imply this concept. These states are Alabama, California, Colorado, Idaho, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Missouri, Oregon, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, and Washington. In Maryland, districts apparently have an option of either providing remedial assistance or holding students back. In Rhode Island, the list of deficiencies to be identified appears to be based on the statewide goals for education, presumably on the assumption that local districts would use the goals as guidelines for assisting individual students. The New Hampshire references to identification are similar to Rhode Island's in that they are directed to discovering deficiencies in local school districts more than in individual students. Both states apparently assume that districts will be working for the benefit of individual students.

While 31 states have mandated some form of activity, not all of them have programs that are operating. Only Arizona had requirements that affected 1977 high school graduation. California, New Jersey, Michigan, Nebraska, Rhode Island, and Washington had programs in effect in 1975, 1976, and 1977, but none of these involved either high school graduation or grade-to-grade promotion.

Many states are conducting testing programs to obtain baseline data for use in setting the standards. The rulings in some states start portions of the programs in one year and order that the total program be in operation one or two years following that.

All of the states have now taken some form of action. In states where legislation or state board rulings have not been passed, the state department

of education or the legislature or both are studying the issue.

Federal Activity. Minimal competency testing has not remained a state issue. In the Congress, Ronald M. Mottl, a Democrat representing the Twenty-Third District of Ohio, has introduced two bills on this subject: HR 6088 and HR 7116. This legislation would require that state education agencies establish a program of basic standards for education proficiency for high school graduation before they could receive any funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

Mottl's bills call for an examination for eleventh graders to test "proficiency in writing skills, reading and comprehension, and mathematics skills and comprehension." The test is to certify students' ability to "use and understand language and to read with facility and understanding." The bills would also set up a National Commission on Basic Education to "establish basic standards of educational proficiency designed to evaluate the reading, writing, and mathematic skills of secondary school students."

Policy and Implementation Questions. Working with an emotional, and politically loaded, issue such as setting minimal standards for graduation or grade promotion forces one to think through the central purpose of American education. In consequence, many educators and politicians who voiced opposition to this type of legislation a year ago now agree with the basic concept and are working to modify legislation and state board rulings or are assisting in their implementation.

As the process of writing or carrying out state mandates begins, the following kinds of questons are usually raised—

- Who should determine what the minimal skills should be?
- Should these standards be set at the national, state, or local level?
- Should high school graduation be based just on achievement of the basic skills or are "seat time," course requirements, and teacher opinion equally important?
- Will statewide minimal competency standards eventually produce state goals for education, thereby reducing local control over education?
- Will schools test academic achievement of the basic skills with ordinary achievement tests only, or will they use applied performance tests, for example, filling out a job application?
- How will minimal competency testing replace or supplement existing statewide assessment procedures?
- Will the use of learning hierarchies, prerequisite skills, and elaborate testing programs create a school learning environment that encourages students to attain minimal standards at a minimal rate of speed? What about excellence? How will programs for the gifted and other kinds of special education fit into the schemes?
- If the school guarantees achievement standards for all graduates and these students fail to perform on a job later in life, will the schools be open for another round of "Peter Doe" cases?

Standards from the NEA

To help assure quality education to all children, the National Education Association strongly suggests that citizens measure their states' policies on competency-based education against the following standards:

1. State policy encourages schools to use many kinds of criteria for student performance and provides that in no case will written tests be the sole criterion for either movement from grade to grade or graduation from secondary school.

2. State policy provides that the proficiencies to be evaluated reflect all the goals of schooling adopted by the state or the local school district, rather than narrow skills only. Local districts decide what skills are basic by the standard of local goals and objectives.

3. State policy encourages local districts to collect information about each student from such sources as (a) teachers and other specialists, (b) sample products of the student's work, (c) interviews with the student, (d) the student's self-evaluation, (e) the student's fulfillment of learning contracts, and (f) evaluations of the student's work-study projects.

4. State policy specifies the following criteria for the use of written exercises (tests, essays, or other written evidence):

- Items are developed locally on the basis of local objectives.
- Exercises are diagnostic in nature so that areas of deficiency can be readily recognized and, wherever possible, the nature of the remediation can be identified.
- The teachers of the various subjects develop and agree on the exercises in those subjects.
- The objectives of instruction are clear to all concerned—teachers, students, parents, administrators, and the public in general.
- Test items and exercises are criterion-referenced, not norm-referenced.
- Students have several opportunities, over a period of years, to be assessed in a variety of ways by classroom teachers and other professionals.
- The school system apprises students of any deficiencies and provides teachers with the materials, time, and specialists' help they need to assist students.
- Those who determine minimal requirements allow for a margin of error in the exercises themselves.

5. State policy encourages less emphasis on grade-level designations and grade-level promotions. (Growth is neither precise nor uniform: "a year's growth in a year" or "a month's growth in a month" is an artificial standard.)

6. State policy provides that local school staffs receive technical assistance in developing the skills they need to assess students' needs, set goals, develop programs, and evaluate progress.

—NEA Instruction and Professional Development.

• Should the state finance, and the schools teach, only the minimal skills?

• What provisions need to be made in the state foundation formula for remedial classes and for students who stay in school longer than 12 or 13 years to meet the minimal skill levels?

• If a state equalization finance formula includes payment differentials for different pay-grade levels, how will these have to be altered if large numbers of students stay in a given grade level longer than usual or, on the other hand, leave school earlier than usual?

• What are the financial implications of the early-out tests? Will states pay for the full year of education for each student who leaves school early? If students move from high school to community colleges during the year, will the state pay for their education twice that year?

• What happens to students who do not achieve the minimal standards? How long will they stay in school?

• At what age should students have the option to leave school? Can students leave without parental permission if they reach the minimal competency standards?

• What options are available to students who pass the minimal competency test and wish to leave school early? Are jobs available? Will the community college or university accept students at any age?

• Will students be labeled *slow* early in their school career and be kept out of vocational or college-bound programs? What about the student who *is* slow or the late bloomer?

• What part should teacher opinion and judgment play in determining which students have met minimum standards?

The minimal competency testing movement does not have a single group or individual as its leader. Very rarely in the history of American education has a majority of the people become so interested in the heart of the educational process—questioning what students should learn and how.

If the American dream of education for all is to be achieved, the dialogue on this issue must be open and continuous. The voice of the teacher should be an essential part of the great debate. □

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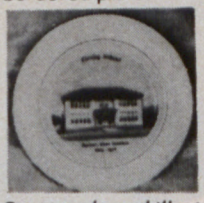

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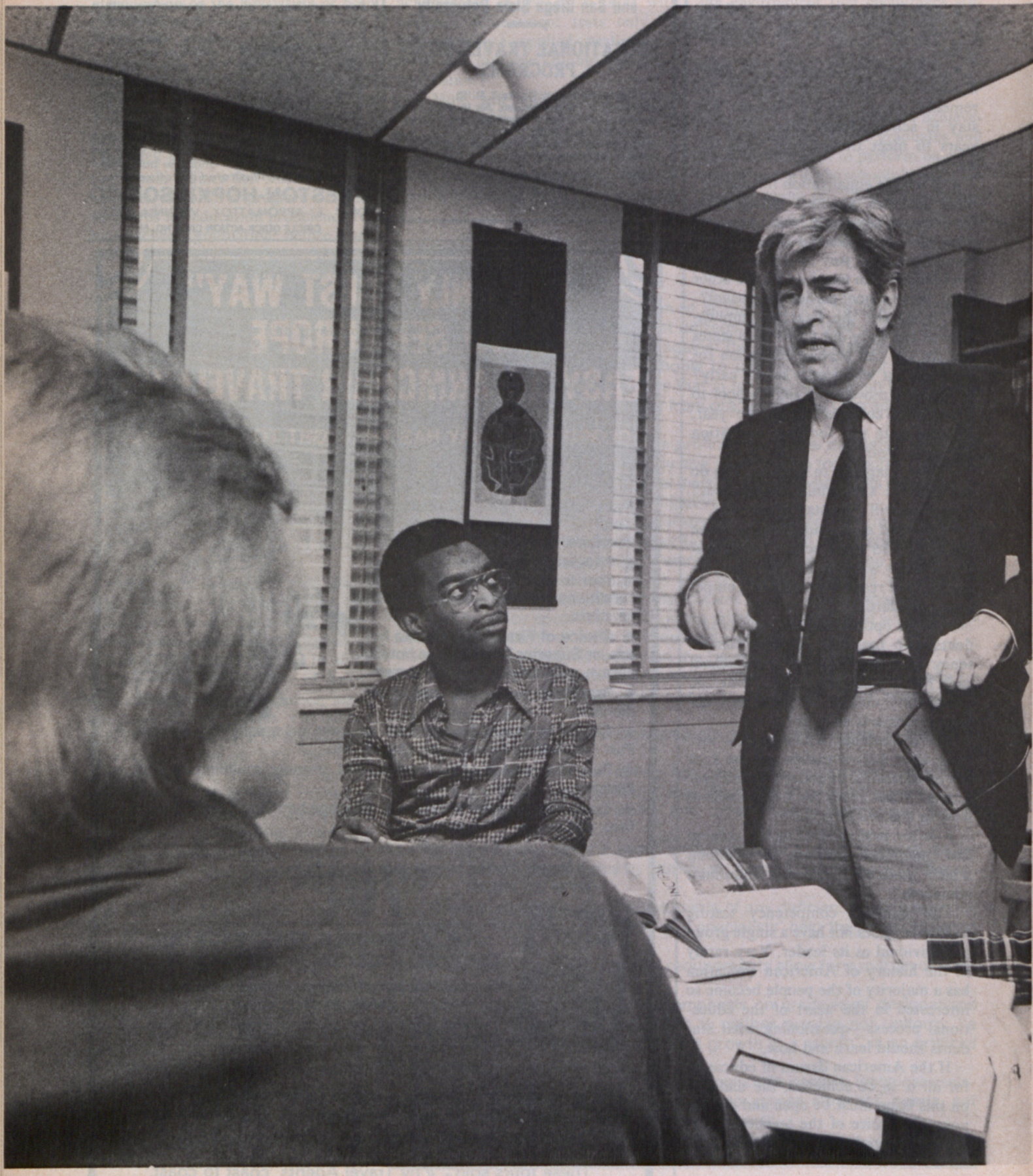

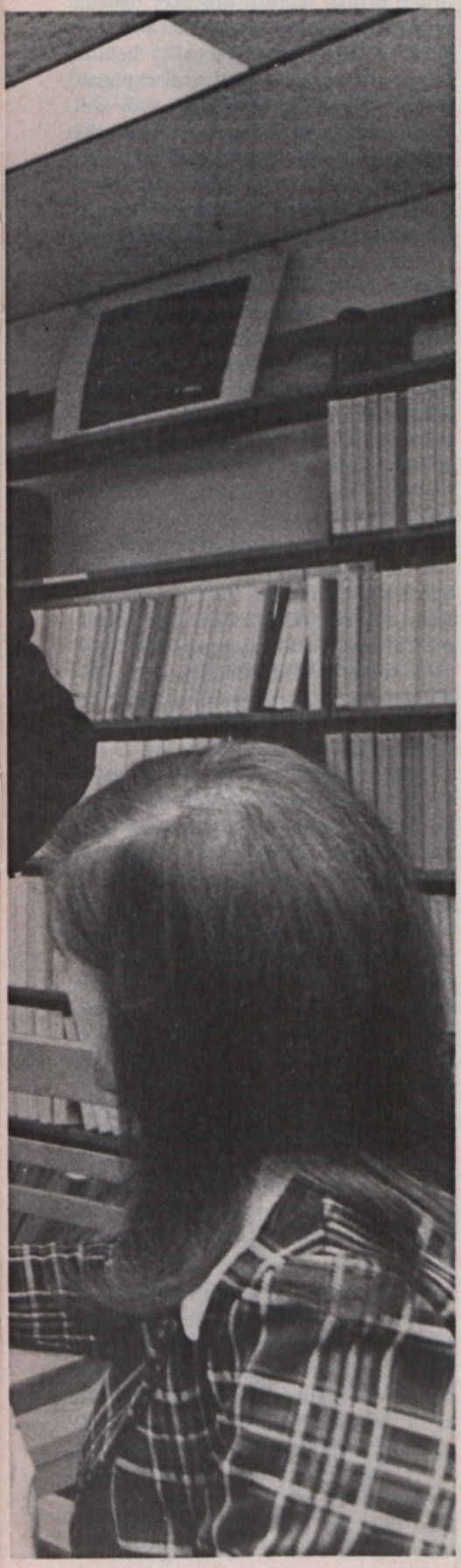

HOW TO TEACH COLLEGE STUDENTS

At the outset of their careers, young Ph.D.'s must learn, must really be convinced, that teaching well is for them an imperative duty. Unless they are fortunate enough to be invited to join the Institute for Advanced Study at Princeton or some other center of pure research, they will be teaching all through their active lives. It is an obligation they cannot escape. If they do not recognize this, they will teach as a disagreeable chore, face their students with a perceptible grudge, and inevitably grow into those embittered and harsh teachers whom we all remember with distaste.

Young Ph.D.'s must also realize that teaching is actually good for them. It helps their private research in several ways. Their students' questions present new problems. (If students are too shy or too torpid to ask questions aloud, teachers must stimulate them into argument.) And a careful reading of examination papers will always produce material for discussion: misunderstandings to be clarified, misinterpretations to be corrected, strong conflicts of opinion to be impartially stated and analyzed.

Teachers will often find that hypotheses they had always accepted without reflection strike their students as unnecessary or fantastic. Gaps in their own knowledge will appear; they must go to the sources and remedy the deficiencies. If they are wise, they will admit right away that they do not know the answers. Then, having discovered them, they will tell their students how and where they found the solutions.

And of course everyone—except a few favored by nature—needs practice in speaking and writing. It is easy, sometimes painfully easy, for teachers to detect when they are not communicating their thoughts to a class. They should try again. Restate the ideas. Run them over at home. Shape them differently, alter the emphasis, add a vivid illustration, coin (or steal) a few epigrams to enliven them, even put them on tape and play them back for their own ears.

A teacher will sometimes be surprised at what comes out of the recording machine. I once had a colleague who used the "hesitation monosyllable" at least once or twice in every—er—sentence. It was—er—impossible, quite impossible (he used emphatic repetition too), for him to make even a short—er—statement without an agonizing—er—pause. Certainly, if he had ever been taped and had heard the playback, he would have been horrified by this habit and would have tried hard to eliminate it.

Sometimes newly fledged Ph.D.'s believe that anyone can learn anything by dogged application. It is this belief that misleads some beginning teachers

By GILBERT HIGHET
Anthon Professor Emeritus of Latin, Columbia University.

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into a dismal tactical mistake: Instead of giving, in their own words with the force of their own personality behind it, the essence of a historical explanation or of a literary analysis, they will read aloud long passages from books and thus dilute the impact of their teaching—and dilute their authority.

Ph.D.'s are well-educated people. Therefore they must allow for minds that are less keen, less confident, less well prepared than theirs; or are poorly adjusted or hampered by unseen and sometimes undiagnosable blockages. Many students, far more than college and university teachers realize, have emotional and intellectual impediments, often without knowing it themselves. One of the obligations of teachers is to diminish or remove them.

Furthermore, many students do not really know how to study. Good teachers, therefore, teach not only their own subjects but also the principles of study and concentration—and their rewards. Dull or distracted students have to be shown these matters in detail. Bright ones find out for themselves.

Some beginning college teachers think it is enough to know something about their subject and then start talking about it. Not so. True, their students have to learn the subject from them. But they ought also to learn intellectual control. Most uneducated and half-educated men and women do not comprehend aesthetic and logical structures. They cannot see a long book or a big topic as a whole made up of interrelated parts. Their attention spans are short; their powers of large-scale understanding are embryonic.

The longer and more impressive a book is, the larger and more complex a subject is, the more difficult it is for most people to see the overall structure with all its articulations. The prudent teacher will remember this and will teach his or her own subject, not as a gravelly conglomerate of facts and details and techniques but as a single intellectual construct, which the students will gradually come to perceive as a whole. Each course must be planned with that principle in mind.

At the outset, the teacher should give students an outline showing the field they are going to cover. Usually they will not read it. Knowing this, the

teacher will go over the outline with them, explaining how the individual parts mesh together and ultimately form a total pattern.

(Often, utter devotion to his or her subject prevents the college teacher from ever questioning its value, which may not be so evident to the students. The teacher, therefore, ought to examine his or her own purpose in studying and teaching it and be clear about the different approaches to the subject. The teacher should know to which he or she gives priority and should at some time—whether at the opening of the course or in a final summary or by stages—explain them to the students.)

Aside from presenting an overall scheme of the course, the college teacher should prepare for each meeting of the class, determining, within the time allotted, to raise a certain number of questions and to answer them or evoke answers to them, to communicate an interlocking series of facts and demonstrate their connections, to explain one particular aspect of a historical process.

After a session, students ought to feel that they have started from one point, traversed intervening areas and surmounted obstacles, and reached a satisfactory halting place. One of my most disheartening intellectual experiences was to hear Plato's *Republic* discussed by a philosopher who simply sat down with the text in his hand and chatted about it. When Plato composed his *Republic*, he designed it as carefully as Ictinus planned the Parthenon. To ignore or minimize this architectonic quality is to do a grave injustice to a great writer and to obscure one of the finest achievements of the Greek genius: its capacity for strong yet subtle structure.

By insisting that planning is essential, I do not mean that each session, or the entire course, should be mechanically regulated, with no room for spontaneous questions, unrehearsed arguments, and ad libs. Many of the best moments in teaching appear out of nowhere and must be seized before they vanish. A segment of a lesson, a few paragraphs of a lecture, can well be sacrificed for the sake of a new and striking idea—provided always that the general scheme is clear in everyone's mind. Good teachers should aim

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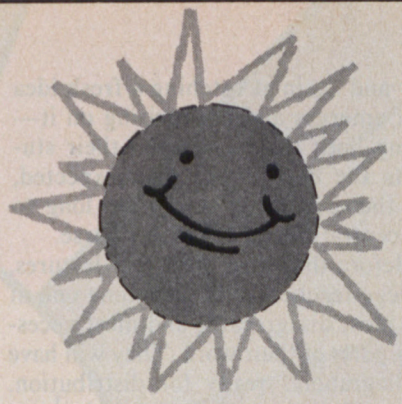

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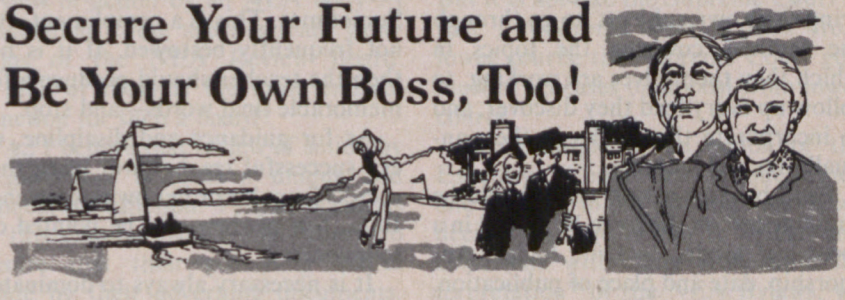

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now and again at catching a fresh idea as it emerges and improvising on it—giving both themselves and their students the delight of the unexpected, but then returning before too long to the central theme of the discourse.

Before they give their first lectures, college teachers will have done one of the most disagreeable and most necessary parts of their work. They will have bibliographies ready for distribution. They will have confirmed that the textbooks are available in sufficient numbers and are easy to obtain. They will have prepared lists of topics for their students—in term papers or experiments or fieldwork—to investigate.

Before lecturing on the same subjects next year, they will have altered their notes, striking out some sections and adding others. Naturally. Inevitably. Some of their own earlier ideas will have changed. New books on the subjects will have been published. Special studies will have appeared in periodicals. Controversial studies must be grappled with; new information must be digested and imparted to the students.

College teachers have a duty to go through the annual bibliographies covering their own subjects, to go through the sections covering the topics in which they themselves are working, to follow up every lead they discover, and to incorporate the results in their annually revised lectures.

Each book or article read should be summarized on sheets to be placed in a loose-leaf binder or a file folder. Authorship, date and place of publication, length by pages, and date of reading should be noted. Important sentences, useful data, crucial references should be copied out verbatim, as well as the names of other works cited by the author on which further investigation might be valuable. Such a summary is the next best thing to having one's own copy of the book, and books are often hard to obtain.

Teachers must put no obstacles, including themselves, in the path of the student who wishes to learn. First of all, they must be clear. They should not yield to bad habits of—er—speech; talk in a weak or slovenly voice; utter incoherent sentences to baffle the listeners; use abstruse words—*parameter, rapport, chiliastic, reductionist*—without explanation; toss off untranslated quotations in foreign languages; or introduce unfamiliar proper names without spelling them or writing them out (in a paper on Eugene O'Neill, a high school student wrote that for one of his dramas O'Neill was given the Pullet Surprise).

Next in importance is vitality, energy, drive. If the teacher is stiff and mechanical in manner or cocooned within a thick protective covering, students will learn less than they could, less than they should. Therefore, it is fatal to go on throughout the hour and throughout the whole course at the same pace. Every change of tone enlivens interest. Each variation of tempo and emphasis inspirits not only the students but the teacher and will prevent the former from dropping into a comfortable somnolent jog trot.

Teachers should also watch the clock and never run over their time. Those who do are either depriving their students of a little leisure (perhaps even a meal) or cutting into some colleague's allotment of precious minutes.

Sometimes a class will urge its teacher to go on and will ignore the bell signaling the end of the period. Sometimes. This is a compliment. It is not frequently bestowed. If it is not, then the teacher should produce a few memorable final words—and stop.

As for guidance and discipline, every successful teacher will learn their secrets from his or her own experience. But a few of them can be pointed out to novices.

It is necessary always to dominate a class. Teachers need not be martinets, but they must control behavior, reprove inattention, and guide the movement of thought—keeping discussions from straying into vagueness, preventing laggards from sitting back and daydreaming (by prodding them with unexpected questions), welding each class into a group to be re-created at each meeting.

Humor is invaluable, to restrain the extravagant and to spur on the dullards.

Relaxation is helpful. Three or four minutes of every hour can well be given to light discourse—comments on a new book, notes on something read in that day's paper (something relevant, not the signal for a political Donnybrook Fair). When the students' minds are switched on once more, they will be livelier and more receptive.

Teachers should read every student's written work with intimate attention, with sympathy, and with suspicion. Their comments must be clear and comprehensible. When they mark something wrong, they should give the correct solution—or at least an indication of where it will be found.

Beginning teachers, especially, should treat examinations, tests, and term papers impartially and with scrupulous care. They must also scrutinize such material with a distrustful eye. Students who are tongue-tied in class may sometimes express themselves with surprising fluency on paper, but they may have copied those fluent paragraphs and those well-chosen quotations out of a library book.

These are the main techniques of teaching that newly graduated college teachers ought to know. But how and by whom should they be taught? The adviser who steers students through the doctoral examinations and the sponsor who supervises the writing of theses should remember that they are training not only research scholars but teachers. It is their duty to give hints on method and warnings against mistakes, to reminisce about their own careers, to speak about good teachers they have known.

Future college teachers will do well to get permission to sit in on seminars directed by eminent men and women. They should seize the opportunity to hear a distinguished visitor. If he or she is good, they will gain much from the experience; if not, they will learn what to avoid.

Though their senior colleagues can offer encouragement, the ultimate responsibility rests on the beginning teachers themselves. They must be ever aware of the need to keep their teaching vital. And they must never relax their attention to their work, remembering that a careless or thoughtless teacher can spoil a young mind. □

This article is adapted from Dr. Highet's book *The Immortal Profession: The Joys of Teaching and Learning* © 1976 by Gilbert Highet. Reprinted by permission of the publisher, Weybright and Talley, a division of David McKay Co., Inc. His earlier book *The Art of Teaching* has stimulated teachers in their work since it was published in 1950.

Our Constitutional Conscience

The NEA has been called one of the most democratic organizations in the world.

Its primary legislative and policy-making body is the Representative Assembly (RA), which consists of some 9,000 representatives selected by the various local, state, and national affiliated associations. At its annual summer meeting, the RA elects officers; adopts the program budget; votes on proposed amendments to the Constitution, Bylaws, and Rules; receives committee reports; and approves resolutions and new business items.

The Board of Directors consists of one director from each state affiliate, plus an additional director for each 20,000 active NEA members within that affiliate. This 135-member body meets at least four times a year and is responsible with the NEA Executive Committee for carrying out the policies of the Association.

The Executive Committee consists of nine members—three executive officers and six members elected at large by the RA. It meets about 10 times a year.

The newest major NEA governing body, established by the new NEA Constitution adopted in 1975, is the NEA Review Board (RB). It has jurisdiction over alleged violations of the Code of Ethics of the Education Profession. In response to charges brought before it, it can censure, suspend, or expel a member for misconduct; impeach an executive officer or a member of the Executive Committee; and review the actions of governing bodies for consistent application of the Constitution and Bylaws. The RB consists of nine members appointed by the president with the advice and consent of the Board of Directors.

To learn more about how the RB can strengthen the profession, *Today's Education* interviewed Nicholas E. Duff, RB chairperson. He has served on the NEA Board of Directors and Executive Committee and is a social studies teacher in Wayzata, Minnesota. His candid remarks follow.

Q.: Impeachment of an NEA officer; censure, suspension, or expulsion of a member for misconduct; and review of action by an NEA body—I understand these are the main functions of the NEA Review Board. Which of these is the most unusual function for such a board?

A.: I believe that review of action by a governing body is a unique and pioneering function. Few associations in this country have a mechanism to ensure that their governing bodies abide by their governing documents. When the NEA adopted its new Constitution and Bylaws in 1975, it was determined that they should be rigorously followed. That's one reason this function of the RB was established.

Q.: Are you saying that the RB is a watchdog of the Association, making sure that the governing bodies abide by the rules?

A.: Not exactly. Each of the governing bodies—the RA, the Board of Directors, and the Executive Committee—is its own watchdog. The RB looks into an action only when it is formally questioned.

Watchdog sounds pretty negative. My image of the fierce watchdog is a little different from my image of the RB. A watchdog is trained to act fast, without hesitation; the RB is set up to look very carefully at the arguments and the documents involved before making a decision. Any watchdog that did that would be fired in a hurry! I prefer the term *Constitutional conscience of the organization.*

Q.: Is the RB then the NEA's Supreme Court?

A.: In limited ways, yes. It's like the Supreme Court in that it has the power to review the action of a governing body, render a decision, and make its recommendations for remedial action. But it is *not* like the Supreme Court in that it does not hear appeals from lower courts; the Supreme Court gets most of its cases on appeal from lower courts.

For example, if an action of the Executive Committee is questioned and brought to our attention and if we decide that the action is in fact not consistent with "any reasonable interpretation" of the NEA Bylaws, we so declare, and then we recommend a way the error may be corrected. We always make recommendation to the body whose action is being reviewed.

Q.: What about censure, suspension, or expulsion of an ordinary NEA member—the teacher in the next room? How is this type of case brought before the RB?

A.: An individual member does not have the power to bring an action against another member, but he or she may request that the NEA executive director do so. Also the governing body of the member's local or state association or 10 or more NEA members may bring a charge against a member.

Q.: Can action be brought against a teacher who is doing a poor job in the

classroom? Can the RB help get rid of inept teachers?

A.: If a teacher is violating the Code of Ethics, we could censure, suspend, or expel him or her from the NEA—whatever we deem appropriate. Our action, however, would not automatically remove a teacher from the profession.

Q.: Don't you think that if the NEA acted against a member, that member would be dismissed by his or her school board?

A.: Not necessarily. Each state has its own grounds for termination of a contract. But I hope that the action of the NEA would affect what would happen at the local level. I should add, however, that NEA acts only on "violation of the Code of Ethics or other sufficient cause," and "other sufficient cause" does not include ineptitude. Teaching ability is a contractual matter between the school board and the teacher—not a matter of ethics—and we don't get into legal obligations between employer and employee.

Review of action by a governing body is a unique and pioneering function.

Q.: Let me ask a timely and specific question: Could the RB take action against a teacher because he or she is homosexual?

A.: No. The two causes listed as "other sufficient cause" besides violation of the Code are—(1) violation of a provision of the NEA Charter, Constitution, or Bylaws, or other written policy of the NEA and (2) conduct which is intended to interfere with or prevent the implementation of a provision of the NEA Charter, Constitution, or Bylaws, or of a written policy of the NEA. So the homosexuality of a teacher is not the proper kind of issue to bring before this body.

Q.: Would you walk me through the procedure the RB follows when a member is charged with a violation of the Code or other sufficient cause?

A.: All right. A complaint must be filed on a special form referring to the specific provision of the Code violated. If three of the nine Board members accept the case, we hold hearings, and each side presents its case with all the elements of due process—rebuttals, cross-examinations, the right to counsel. Then the RB retires to deliberate and finally renders its decision.

One very important element of due process is that judgment must be made on the testimony as presented at the hearing. We have to be very careful not to get involved in a case before it reaches the hearing.

Q.: How often do you meet?

A.: We meet as needed to consider cases. There is no regular meeting schedule.

Q.: What kinds of cases have you heard, and what has been the disposition of those cases?

A.: Toward the end of the first year of our existence, we received our first case, and we are now in the midst of our second. Both cases have been requests for reviews of action taken by a governing body—the Executive Committee in one case and the Board of Directors in the other—to see if action taken was consistent with the Constitution and Bylaws.

We have had many inquiries about other cases, some of which involved the ethical conduct of individual members. We have had no inquiry regarding officer impeachment, I'm happy to say.

None of the ethics inquiries has developed into a formal complaint. Many of them have, we suspect, been taken to another level for action. Some states and many local associations have procedures for hearing cases of alleged ethical violations. They may not have review boards as such, but they have mechanisms for due process for members in any action that may lead to expulsion from their state or local associations.

Q.: Could a member charged with a Code violation be represented at the hearing by legal counsel?

A.: Yes, he or she would have the right to be represented by legal counsel, and the party bringing the charges would be the prosecutor. Counsel may or may not be a lawyer. Our hope is that we can avoid getting entangled in legal technicalities and still have a fair due process.

Q.: Can you tell me more about the two cases you have dealt with to date?

A.: One case has been completed; the other is in process. In the first case, we found that an action of the NEA Executive Committee was inconsistent with the NEA Constitution. We sent our findings to the Executive Committee with recommendations. It subsequently repealed its action, which dealt with allocating delegates for the Representative Assembly. The Washington Education Association had made the request for a review of the action.

I'd rather not comment on the second case since it is still in process.

Q.: Isn't it surprising that you haven't as yet had any cases involving Code violations by individual members?

A.: Well, yes and no. NEA members aren't that aware of our existence yet. One state that set up a Review Board a number of years ago had very few cases for the first year or two. But when people in that state realized that the mechanism existed for filing certain types of complaints, the state began to have a steady flow of cases.

Q.: What kind of ethics cases do you anticipate eventually?

A.: To answer that, I'm going to draw partly from my memory of experiences in Minnesota, where we had an ethics commission. One case involved slanderous statements made by one teacher about other teachers; some cases involved teacher abuse in selling encyclopedias or musical instruments to students.

I remember one case in which we said the teachers charged had not acted unethically, but the manner in which a teacher brought charges against them in public before going to them directly was unethical. So we cleared the teachers charged and raised questions about the one bringing charges.

Of course, the RB can't initiate charges, someone in the field must initiate the action.

Q.: Do you anticipate that as the RB becomes more widely known there will be a lot of nuisance cases? I hate that teacher down the hall, and I'm going to talk other people into believing that he

(continued on page 46)

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or she has violated the Code, so I'm going to bring action against him or her just because of my own feelings.

A.: Well, in the first place it takes 10 teachers or a local affiliate or an NEA officer to file a complaint. Second, it takes three members of the RB to accept a case.

Q.: What kinds of cases do you think NEA members ought to be aware of and concerned about and bring to the attention of the RB?

A.: Every NEA member should be familiar with the Code and should also be aware of local, state, and national association provisions for action against Code violators. The member should come to the RB only if there is some reason his or her complaint cannot be handled at the local or state level.

Q.: If my local or state association can handle my complaint, why should I ever go to the RB?

A.: There are times when the local and state associations are so involved in a case that it would be difficult to have an impartial hearing at those levels. For example, the complaint may be against a local or state officer.

Q.: Then where to file my case is up to me as a teacher complainant? What should I do, write a letter to my local, state, or national RB?

A.: You should contact the appropriate official and ask for details about the proper procedures and forms, which differ from association to association. But whatever association is contacted, you must indicate the specific provision of the Code that has been violated and exactly what was done that violated the provision. Furthermore, the accused must be told who his or her accusers are. These principles hold at whatever level you file the complaint. Of course, there are various degrees of formality in various associations, and some locals have no mechanism at all for hearing cases.

Some local and state associations have brought cases against individual teachers who have done something to threaten the contracts of other teachers—strikebreakers, for example. I predict that a lot more action will be taken at the state and local levels against the teachers who violate state or local bylaws or constitutions.

Q.: Does the RB automatically review actions of a local or state review board or its counterpart?

A.: No, it does not. Under proposed amendments to our procedures, however, there is a special situation in which the RB may be involved in such a review.

Normally, a member expelled by a local or state association review board or other governing body is automatically expelled from the NEA. Someone in that situation, however, might claim that such expulsion from NEA should not occur because he or she was acting in accordance with NEA policy or was denied due process. Under the proposed changes, such a member would be permitted to appeal to the Executive Committee, which would refer the case to the RB for its findings. Only in such a special case would the RB be involved in an examination of a local or state review board action.

> The Code is meant to protect the teacher —not "get the teacher."

Q.: When the NEA Constitutional Convention Committee met in Fort Collins in 1971, the subcommittee on judicial power had in mind a separation of powers such as the U.S. government has. Is the RB the same as the judicial board in the Con Con document?

A.: No. RB is not so broad in scope as the judicial board that was proposed. The composition is similar, but the function is more limited. We handle ethics cases, but we don't hear appeals.

We are also different from the old NEA Ethics Committee in that we don't consider revisions of the Code or promote adherence to the Code. We are not a publicity organ for the Code. We will interpret the Code in the course of deciding cases, but the old Ethics Committee could issue Code interpretations without actual cases in hand.

Q.: Would the RB hear a case brought by a member who claims discrimination because he or she was forced to retire at age 65? Isn't it unethical to discriminate against older teachers by forcing their retirement?

A.: We would not hear such a case. This would be a contractual or legal question in the states rather than a question involving the Code. Unless charges of unethical behavior are violations of the Code, we can't deal with them.

Q.: Does the RB's power to review a Representative Assembly action make the RB more powerful than the RA?

A.: Not at all. The RB is set up as a Constitutional conscience to make sure that the Constitution and Bylaws are adhered to. If the RA wants to amend the Constitution and the Bylaws, it has the authority to do so. The RA has the ultimate word, and that is the way it should be.

Q.: What about the impeachment function of the RB? You haven't said much about that.

A.: An NEA officer may be impeached only for a violation of the Code or for performing his or her duties in an arbitrary or abusive manner, for violation of NEA policy, or for refusal or failure to perform his or her duties. Proceedings may be initiated by written petition submitted to the Review Board by at least 15 percent of the delegates to the Representative Assembly.

Of course, we expect and hope we'll never have an impeachment case, but we've been reminded by Watergate that the issue can arise anywhere!

Q.: Since the NEA president appoints members of the RB, what is to keep it from being dominated by "puppets of the president"?

A.: There are a number of built-in safeguards. One of these is the five-year, staggered term of RB members. Thus the president, who can serve only two two-year terms, does not have the power to appoint all the RB members. Second, appointees have to be approved by the Board of Directors. Third, RB members are removed from the political game. None can hold office, either appointive or elective, at any level while on the RB. And finally, the Board of Directors can remove RB members.

(continued on page 51)

2055 Those of you who think you know everything are annoying to those of us who do.

2203 You're special.

2284 Jesus is the Way.

2319 When you come to the end of your rope, make a knot, and hang on.

438 Peace to all who enter here.

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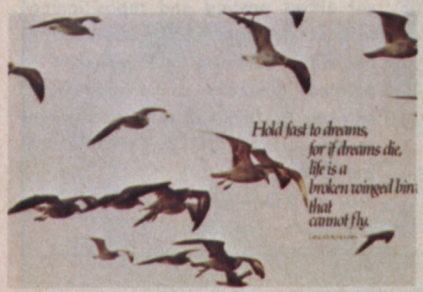

369 Hold fast to dreams, for if dreams die, life is a broken-winged bird that cannot fly.

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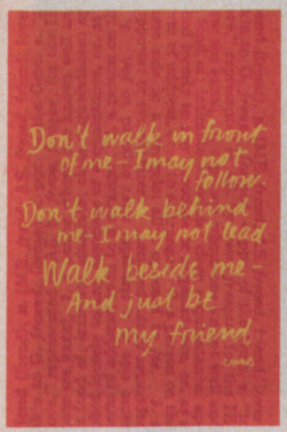
2302 Yes, Lord God, I believe.



398 Don't walk in front of me—I may not follow. Don't walk behind me—I may not lead. Walk beside me—and just be my friend.

377 I like you—you're different!

2399 To know me is to love me.

2456 If you want a friend, be a friend.

2187 We're all in this together.

2118 Where there is great love there are always great miracles.

630 There can be no rainbow without a cloud and a storm.

2353 Do not pray for an easy life. Pray to be a strong person.

2397 The pursuit of truth will set you free—even if you never catch up with it.

Happiness is like a butterfly.
The more you chase it, the more it will elude you.
But if you turn your attention to other things,
It comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

370 Happiness is like a butterfly. The more you chase it, the more it will elude you. But if you turn your attention to other things, it comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

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2186 We need each other.

2280 See, I make all things new.

756 Things take time.

724 When life gives you lemons, make lemonade.

2166 We do not remember days, we remember moments.

*2337 Big shots are only little shots who keep shooting.

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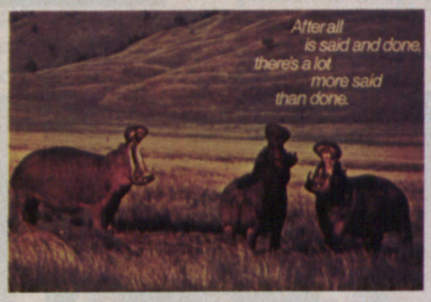


2183 After all is said and done, there's a lot more said than done.

2092 A ship in a harbor is safe, but that is not what ships are built for.

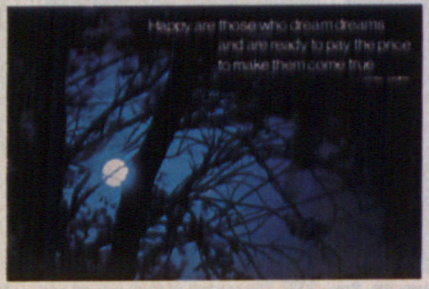
2196 I may have my faults, but being wrong isn't one of them.

2393 Things are always at their best in their beginning.

2155 Seek inner beauty!

658 The important thing is this: to be able at any moment to sacrifice what we are for what we could become.

2323 I know you believe you understand what you think I said. But I am not sure you realize that what you heard is not what I meant.



354 Happy are those who dream dreams and are ready to pay the price to make them come true.

404 Jesus of Nazareth requests the honor of your presence at a dinner to be given in his honor.

COMPLAINT FORM

Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2208 Complaint Form. Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2226 In every living thing is the spirit to be free.

2133 Colors speak all languages.

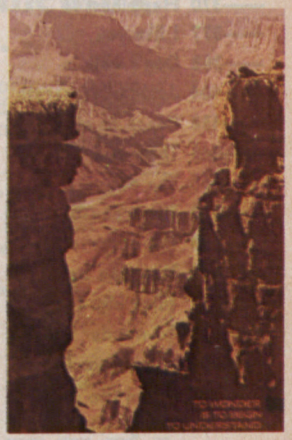
2330 Climb high. Climb far. Your goal the sky. Your aim the star!

2119 Thinking is hard work

2219 It is hard to be good.

677 Think big.

2019 God is nearer to us than we are to ourselves.



716 To wonder is to begin to understand.

2344 I wake up slow.

2407 Happiness is found along the way, not at the end of the road.

448 There are two ways of spreading light: to be the candle or the mirror that reflects it.

660 They can because they think they can.

2158 The secret of success in life is for a person to be ready when his opportunity comes.

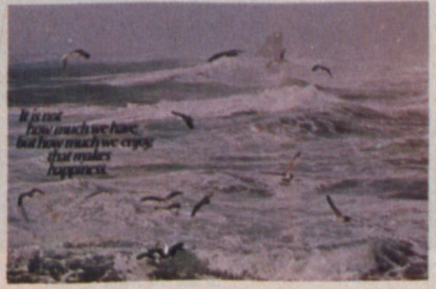
2121 When you dream, dream big!

2283 If you don't feel strong enough, try the Bread of Life.

2438 Hold to a true friend with both your hands.

2281 Slow me down, Lord.

2259 Be true to your own highest convictions.



2081 It is not how much we have, but how much we enjoy, that makes happiness.

2367 The more I study, the more I know. The more I know, the more I forget. The more I forget, the less I know. So why study?

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____	398	Don't walk in
____	404	Jesus of Nazareth
____	438	Peace to all
____	448	There are two
____	460	The deepest
____	630	There can be no
____	658	The important
____	660	They can because
____	677	Think big
____	716	To wonder is
____	721	A dreamer lives
____	724	When life gives
____	756	Things take time
____	760	If you do not
____	856	All I have seen
____	2019	God is nearer
____	2055	Those of you
____	2081	It is not how
____	2092	A ship in a
____	2118	Where there is
____	2119	Thinking is hard
____	2121	When you dream
____	2133	Colors speak all
____	2155	Seek inner beauty
____	2158	The secret of
____	2166	We do not
____	2167	You observe a lot
____	2183	After all is said
____	2186	We need each
____	2187	We're all in this
____	2196	I may have my
____	2203	You're special
____	2208	Complaint Form
____	2219	It is hard to be
____	2226	In every living
____	2259	Be true to your
____	2280	See, I make all
____	2281	Slow me down
____	2283	If you don't feel
____	2284	Jesus is the Way
____	2293	May the Peace of
____	2297	I have come that
____	2302	Yes, Lord God
____	2319	When you come
____	2323	I know you
____	2330	Climb high, Climb
____	2337	Big shots are
____	2344	I wake up slow
____	2353	Do not pray for
____	2367	The more I
____	2378	The way to get
____	2393	Things are always
____	2397	The pursuit of
____	2399	To know me is
____	2404	One is nearer
____	2407	Happiness is
____	2408	Take life one
____	2438	Hold to a
____	2439	Everybody has
____	2456	If you want
____	2469	You have only

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2167 You observe a lot by watching.

721 A dreamer lives forever.

2297 I have come that you may have life and have it more abundantly.

2408 Take life one day at a time.

2404 One is nearer God's heart in a garden than anywhere else on earth.

760 If you do not understand my silence, you will not understand my words.

2439 Everybody has a right to my opinion.

856 All I have seen teaches me to trust the Creator for all I have not seen.

460 The deepest feeling always shows itself in silence.

2378 The way to get anywhere is to start from where you are

2293 May the Peace of Christ be with you.

2469 You have only to open your eyes to see the hand of God.

OUR CONSTITUTIONAL CONSCIENCE
(continued from page 46)

Q.: What does the future hold for the RB?

A.: I don't think we'll have many impeachment cases, but our role of Constitutional conscience will become ever greater. In time, the RB may become the ultimate interpreter of the NEA Code of Ethics, and we'll hear a number of cases involving violations of the Code. We'll become, not a watchdog as was suggested earlier, but a Constitutional conscience or a safety valve that will permit the remedying of heated political action through dispassionate and thoughtful re-examination.

We should also move in the direction of becoming protective of the teacher's rights. A teacher may be accused of unethical behavior, but he or she now has a mechanism through which to get a fair hearing. A teacher may now say when accused, "I have been behaving ethically, and I have every confidence a hearing will vindicate me."

Q.: Do you consider this protection against unjust charges to be more important than ferreting out individuals who have engaged in unethical conduct?

A.: They are two sides of the same sword. If there is ferreting out, there should be protection for those who are behaving ethically. The teacher wants to be sure that Association officials are true to the Constitution and NEA policy and that they are carrying out their sworn responsibilities faithfully.

I also feel that the Code protects teachers from pressures to do something they really shouldn't be doing. They can say to the administration or community, "Look, according to the Code, that would be an unethical act."

The Code is meant to protect the teacher; it is not something designed "to get the teacher."

Q.: How can a member get a copy of the Code and/or additional information about the RB?

A.: Write to me or to Samuel B. Ethridge, executive assistant to the Review Board, at NEA Center, 1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, DC 20036. ☐

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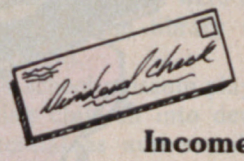

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 13

Bored or apathetic children were something of a rarity at Timber Lane Elementary School—the Right to Read School in Fairfax County, Virginia—where I was the reading specialist. The key to the success of the program was motivation, and the staff operated on the premise that pleasure is the greatest motivator.

To develop reading skills, teachers, parents, and the principal designed a many-faceted plan, "I Believe I Can Read." Funded by the federal Right to Read project, it started with the child's interests and used them to teach reading. (Although federal funding of the program ended in 1975, some schools throughout Fairfax County are still using many of the ideas developed in the reading program.)

At Timber Lane, we attempted to match teaching styles with learning styles, and we grouped pupils according to their needs in a self-contained situation or in an open team-taught environment. Team placement for each child was based on many considerations, including age and size, need for leadership skills, and social maturity. Overlapping age spans in teams (five- to seven-year-olds on one team, six- to eight-year-olds and nine- to 12-year-olds on the others) allowed flexibility within and among teams in placing a child for his or her academic program.

By using a variety of diagnostic tools, teachers determined the pupils' skills and what they needed to learn. The emphasis was on reading in all of the content areas—math, social studies, and science, as well as language arts.

When a child mastered a specific skill, she or he was rewarded with an "I know how to. . . ." badge, naming the accomplishment. Acquired skills were recorded on a narrative report card. Skills were also noted on the profiles tests, which were constantly updated for the benefit of the instructional team.

Older pupils aided teachers in both one-to-one and small-group activities. They read to children or helped groups at learning centers.

In addition, peer tutors evolved in each team. A child who had just acquired a skill developed pride and self-confidence by teaching it to others. Study Buddies, teams of an older child and a younger one that met two or three times weekly for half-hour periods, provided students with individualized attention and at the same time improved their self-concepts.

Children who had great difficulty with learning often attained success in reading while teaching conversational English to a foreign student. The reading teacher worked with each pair to set up objectives and then to plan a program that would meet these needs.

By LINDA ZIONTS GOLDBERG
Reading Specialist, Fairfax County (Virginia) Public Schools.

READ,

The older buddies helped the younger ones read, developed learning games, and wrote down stories that the younger children dictated to them. They also gave Glad Notes (5 x 8 cards with a smiling face and an encouraging comment) to the younger buddies as a reward for specific social or academic achievements.

Study Buddies and Glad Notes were just two of the many faculty-designed techniques to motivate pupils and show them that joy can be gained from achievement.

Read, Tigers, Read provided a reading certificate and a free book to a child who read 10 books. The child's name was also placed on a scroll in the school library, and a star was put after his or her name for each additional 10 books read. Thereafter, the child was awarded another certificate for every 10 books read and a free book for every 50.

Parents and community organizations donated books for the reading program. One community group provided money with which to buy new books, and many local bookstores sold to the school at a special discount.

Daily, everyone in the school from the principal to the custodian engaged in a period of uninterrupted silent reading to demonstrate the importance of reading in everyday life. During this time, all the pupils who could engaged in recreational reading, and those who were unable to read studied pictures or listened to tapes or records of books.

A resourceful staff developed a number of reading exercises. One, for example, involved deciding what an individual would have to be able to read in order to get along in a strange country.

Studying the newspaper was another exercise, and even the nonreaders were inspired to at least check out TV and movie schedules. Sending away for "freebies" in magazines turned everyone on.

Each team had its own camera, film, and scrapbook. Using inexpensive, easy-to-operate cameras, a photography club captured the interest and imagination of even the most reluctant readers. Children planned a sequence of shots, wrote stories about their photos, and classified pictures by category—all reading-related skills. The library displayed photographs taken by children and teachers along with slide shows of field trips, plays, and other activities. For many children, seeing their work displayed was, by itself, highly rewarding.

Every now and then, the school invited adults with special talents to meet with pupils. On one occasion, an illustrator demonstrated her skills and techniques, described opportunities in her field, and illustrated some of the children's favorite stories.

A Young Authors Club met once a week in order for its members to discuss ideas and to write, illustrate, and bind their own books. When completed, the books were cataloged and placed in the library for others to check out.

A school museum played its part in luring children into developing their potential as authors, illustrators, or scientists. It displayed stuffed animals loaned by the Smithsonian Institution and had learning centers where students could develop and use various skills. Classes, small groups of pupils, and individuals came to the museum to write about, draw pictures of, or study the various animals.

A wide variety of racial and ethnic groups, including Blacks, Greeks, Arabs, Jews, Vietnamese, Koreans, Mexicans, Italians, and East Indians, made up the school community. The heterogeneous student and staff population emphasized the ever-growing need to provide a multicultural education, using texts that gave fair representation to people of different ethnic and economic backgrounds.

In the integrated language arts and social studies block of time, one class studied minorities by dividing into groups. Each group explored the history, religion, music, dance, and other aspects of a particular culture. They made posters and illustrations, studied films and books, and had discussions with resource people. The climax of these activities was a Minority Day when each group presented information about the ethnic group they had studied.

In the career-education math lab, resource people from the community gave demonstrations and lectures and answered questions. The children practiced their math skills with hands-on materials. At one time, they set up a simulated real estate office, a driver education center, a doctor's office, and a restaurant. Students learned the relationships between reading and mathematical problems in the world of work.

A day of on-the-job experience was another facet of this program. In the school, students acted as secretaries, custodians, or teacher aides. Outside the school, they worked with people engaged in various occupations, including garage mechanics and pizza chefs. (The pizza participants enjoyed the product more than the process.)

Parents were an integral part of the school community. A number of parent volunteers were trained to meet the

(continued on page 93)

GERS, READ

SPECIAL FEATURE
ON WRITING

Whatever Happened

It didn't begin with the Watergate tapes, although they made people think about it again. It didn't begin with Orwell's Politics and the English Language 30 years earlier. The need to help young people learn to express themselves clearly has been recognized since the study of rhetoric first appeared in the ancient world.

What the Watergate tapes did was reveal that the United States was being run by people who could not, or would not, use their mother tongue with clarity and precision. The National Assessment of Educational Progress revealed, further, that many ordinary people were leaving school without learning to communicate adequately in writing. Now, clear thinking and clear expression are in great demand, in schools and in government agencies, business offices, and the councils of politicians. More and more commentators invite us to laugh at absurdities written or spoken by educated people. College teachers complain that their students cannot present an idea coherently; remedial writing courses have begun on many campuses. Teachers in elementary and secondary schools wrestle vainly with sentences that cannot be forced to yield a meaning.

In the following special feature, Peter Madden, Gloria Chantland, and Eric Branscomb describe ways to help students—elementary, secondary, and college students—learn to think and write clearly, and they discuss some of the difficulties of teaching composition.

Whatever happened to the middle R? Although writing is clearly the most useful activity in the curriculum for integrating concepts and ideas from different content areas, most elementary classroom teachers give far less time and attention to writing than to any other basic skill. Why?

Part of the answer may be that teachers themselves often dislike writing due to their previous negative experiences with it. Even though the rewards of completing a writing exercise usually make the effort seem worthwhile in retrospect, writing is a discipline that at the moment of execution is often difficult and painful.

Another reason teachers often fail to assign as much writing as they might is their problem of finding time to read and grade all those extra papers. The answer to this is simple: Give more writing assignments, but don't grade all the papers.

Teachers don't observe and comment on every single activity students engage in when they are developing other skills. For example, a teacher of music or tennis instructs, observes, and critiques the students periodically, but they then practice daily on their own between lessons. The same process is appropriate for the teaching of writing skills. A teacher can assign daily writing to every student but need only read a fraction of the papers, providing every student's work is critiqued once a week.

The gradual disappearance of writing is only a part of the fragmentation of the curriculum into separate, unrelated parts over the last few decades. Even language arts, which in my childhood was taught as a single content area, has been split into reading (which has grown enormously at the expense of almost everything else in the curriculum), language (which seems to be a modern euphemism for grammar), literature, and writing. Furthermore, the child's progress in these areas is carefully programmed and sequenced through the curriculum materials provided by the school.

Perhaps one reason for writing's current decline is that it is by nature so thoroughly an integrative process that no one could come up with a set of developmental skills or objectives, so the curriculum planners simply dropped it in embarrassment! For writing is the one part of the language arts program that allows children to put all their communication skills together in an active, expressive way to convey an idea to someone else.

Teachers who use language-experience approaches to reading have been among the most consistent developers of children's writing skills. They have discovered that reading and writing are *not* reversible processes.

An infant (primary) school in Chelmsford, England, gives no reading instruction. It has no basal readers, no readiness programs, and no class periods reserved solely for the teaching of

By PETER CLARK MADDEN
Assistant Professor of Education, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond; Former Science Teacher, Neptune, New Jersey.

to the Middle R?

reading skills. Instead, the children write several times a day, several hundred words at a time, for their entire three years in school. Despite the absence of any reading program as we know it, not a single child has left the school scoring below the 50th percentile on the national reading test in the past four years.

Another curious insight that teachers who teach writing often discover is that the unlikeliest children sometimes develop into the class's best writers. Writing is one of the few areas in the standard curriculum where disadvantaged or culturally deprived children can consistently outshine their middle-class counterparts in creativity and content. Perhaps this happens because these children live more vivid lives and experience greater swings of existence than the typical suburban students. Whatever the reason, the vividness of their lives comes through beautifully in their writing.

After doing a workshop on writing, many teachers approach me exclaiming, "Look at this story (or poem) that Jerry (or Jeannie) just wrote. That's the first time this child has shown the slightest spark of talent or interest all year!" This happens frequently enough to convince me that it is not all coincidence. Maybe some of these "problem" or "deprived" children have just been waiting for some way to let someone know how they feel and what they think about things.

Getting a writing program started and maintaining it is a much simpler process than many teachers think. A few basic rules can lead to a successful program.

1. *Assign writing every day.* No doubt there will initially be moans and groans aplenty in your classroom, but these will subside when the children realize that writing is simply another part of the typical school day, just like reading and math.

2. *Set minimum targets or goals on quantity of writing.* Let the children know that you expect them to produce a minimum amount of writing every day. A realistic set of guidelines is 50 words per day for first graders, 100 words per day for second graders, 200 words per day for third and fourth graders, and 300 words per day for fifth graders and up.

Every teacher with whom I have worked has been able to implement this program within a matter of days. Once the children get the hang of writing, these requirements represent about 20 minutes of work each day for most of them.

3. *Never attempt to read everything the children write.* Each day, sample out one-fifth of the papers to read in depth and make comments and corrections as noted in the following steps. For the other children, simply record the quantity of their work and return it.

Don't attempt to deceive your students. Explain to them the impossibility of reading everything they write and let them know that if they have written something they are especially proud of, you will make a point of looking it over. It also helps to select your papers for close reading on a random basis so the children don't detect a pattern and realize that their paper won't be read except on Thursdays. Quality is likely to suffer if that happens.

4. *Reinforce quantity before you reinforce quality.* Don't devote a lot of attention to children's errors and problems until you get them producing the quantity of work you have requested. If children write fewer words than the guidelines call for, praise them for what they have done and suggest that they attempt to add a few more lines tomorrow. Also make it plain that you expect the guidelines to be followed. It won't take long until almost every child is quickly and easily producing the minimum quantity assigned, but until that time comes, don't discourage anyone with a lot of red marks or negative feedback.

Occasionally Mary may say she just can't think of *any* way to write that many words on her own. In his *Hooked on Books,* Daniel Fader has the answer for this dilemma: Let her copy something. It really works! After a few days of copying to make the minimum, every child I have ever worked with started writing on his or her own.

5. *Reinforce quality one step at a time.* Most papers you receive will probably have many errors. Correcting them calls for individualization and restraint. Work on a few errors with each child, calling attention to them until the child overcomes them. Ignore the rest of the errors. For example, you might work with a student on initial capitals until those are mastered, then move on to use of the comma, and so forth.

The same holds true for spelling errors. Help each child work on the

particular words with which he or she needs the most help. Sometimes I have had children keep a small notebook at their desks to record the spelling words that are a particular problem for them.

6. *Vary the writing topics.* If you ask older children about their writing assignments, they will tell you that they have been asked to write on the same few topics over the years. My son called this to my attention when he was a fourth grader. He awoke one morning, saw snow, and groaned, "Oh no." When I commented that I thought he liked snow, he replied, "I do. But this is the first time it has snowed this year, and when I get to school, I just know that the teacher will make us write about 'The First Snow.' They do it every year!" (His teacher did that year, too.)

Writing is one topic that lends itself particularly well to a centers approach. With a few basic reference books and one full day of work, you can create a writing center that will contain several hundred writing topics. Once children learn how to use the center, they often respond well to such stimuli as "What If" (you were principal, President, a boy, a baby, a teacher), "How Would You" (trap an elephant, solve the energy crisis, change school), or "Story Starters" (Suddenly the phone rang and a voice said . . . .).

Above all, don't let writing assignments become divorced from the rest of the curriculum. Thus, while the center is a good source of writing topics part of the time, you can work writing into social studies, science, math, literature, art, music, or any other activity your students engage in.

Over a year's time, children can work on poetry, reports, stories, plays, interviews, essays, letters, and every other form of written communication. The integrative quality of classroom writing is based upon the total flexibility of written thought to deal with the complete spectrum of human experience and feelings.

This is the real payoff of a writing program. Not only do children learn to write as a skill but in the process they learn to explore ideas and feelings in a way that is different from the verbal, associative thinking in which they usually operate. As they produce more writing, children tend to become more alert to their environment, more knowledgeable about the topics they have covered, and more reflective about the concepts, facts, and opinions they encounter. Increased proficiency in writing is a rising tide that carries all the other parts of the curriculum up with it. □

WRITING

(continued)

How To Teach Them To Proofread

"If you had only read your paper over before you handed it in, you could have found these errors yourself."

Is it possible to teach for any length of time without making that statement? I think not. We tell students to look at their work before handing it in. We give them time to do it. Sometimes we even watch while they do it. We preach. We plead. Then we collect the papers and find all the little mistakes that they could so easily have found and corrected themselves.

Is it possible to sell them on the idea of proofreading? Is it possible to teach them to proofread? I think it is.

The trouble is that we tell them to read their papers looking for errors and shortcomings—all errors and all shortcomings—all at once. We tell them to look for everything at once, and we are lucky if they find anything at all. The trouble is we tell them to proofread. We don't show them how.

I propose that we teach them to look for one thing at a time—that we teach them specific proofreading.

Let's assume it's time for students to hand in an assignment. Tell them to exchange papers with each other and read each other's papers for one specific error that has been cropping up in their work lately. It may be spelling, placement of decimal points, or terminology. You name it.

Tell them to concentrate on that one particular item you specify and circle in pencil (or whatever you prefer) any error they find, even if they just suspect it might be an error. Have them exchange papers again and repeat the process still looking for that same error. Do this several times. Then have them return the papers to their owners and give them time to make corrections.

During another session, you may want them to check for several types of errors. Fine. But only *one* at a time. Don't even tell students what the second item is until they have exchanged papers a few times looking for the first type of error. Then give them another 10-to-15 minutes or three-to-four exchanges to look for the second error and so on.

Or you might have a "students' choice" proofreading session. Have students staple a cover sheet to their papers and write across the top the error they would like their classmates to proofread for. (The cover sheet is

By GLORIA CHANTLAND
Free-Lance Writer and Former High School English Teacher.

also a good idea if you would rather not have students marking up each other's papers. You can have students number the lines or sentences or problems on their papers at the beginning of the session so that the proofreader can write something like "incomplete sentence, sentence 18" or "inaccurate quote, line 5" or "wrong theorem, problem 3.")

Or if you want them to check for something more involved, you can provide dittoed sheets with specific written directions and appropriate space for responses. For example, after discussing some basic principles of essay organization with an English class I was teaching, I had my students use a proofreading form which had the following specific instructions:

1. Read the introductory paragraph. Then read the rest of the paper concentrating only on ideas and information. If the introductory paragraph does not introduce the whole paper, write DNIWP in the space provided below. If it introduces other ideas not dealt with in the paper, write IOI.

2. Now read the first sentence in the second paragraph. Check each of the following sentences in this paragraph, and list by number any sentences that do not substantiate the first sentence. Do this for each remaining paragraph in the paper.

It is possible to devise similar proofreading sheets to meet students' needs in various courses or for particular lessons. Specific proofreading is a flexible tool. Following are a few practical suggestions.

1. Have students hand in proofreading sheets stapled to completed papers.

2. Have proofreaders sign their names next to their comments.

3. Be sure to devise proofreading sheets that require specific comments—not just "yes" or "no" answers.

Students should have the feeling that this is important business, that they are helping each other, and that they can all benefit from this kind of help.

After each paper has been read by several students, papers should be returned to their owners and time allowed for students to make corrections. If they are checking for something simple like spelling, for example, they may use dictionaries to make corrections when their papers are returned to them. But if they have been proofreading for something more involved, it is wise to allow time for students to check with their proofreaders about questions on their supposed errors.

This kind of student exchange is often a fruitful learning experience. You may be drawn into these discussions if the students cannot resolve a problem themselves, and this is the ideal time for you to provide answers and help—when the students are asking for it.

Individual help may also be required during proofreading sessions when students have some question as to how to "mark" a paper. And if you become aware that a number of students have the same problem, what better time than right then to ask the class to stop while you explain or clarify a point for them?

So far, so good. Swapping papers and proofreading each other's papers and getting teacher help and instruction. But eventually, students have to learn to proofread their *own* work. They must learn to find and correct their own errors.

The difficulty that students have proofreading their own work is that they are just plain tired of looking at it. And they have in their heads the ideas or answers they are sure they have put on that piece of paper. Consequently, when they proofread their papers, they "see" what they intended to be there. Specific proofreading helps, but sometimes they can still look right at those misplaced decimal points, those misspelled words, those inaccurate quotes and "see" them as they meant to write them.

And the way to overcome this difficulty is to use a trick that many professional writers use. They put the manuscript away for a while and then come back to it so they can really see what they have written. Great theory for the professional writer, but is it practical for the classroom?

Yes. Collect assignments on a Friday. Hold them in your desk. Pass them back to the students to proofread their own papers on a Monday. Or papers that are done in class on Wednesday can be collected and handed back for proofreading on Friday. Do whatever is convenient for your schedule.

Then there is the problem of how to sell the students themselves on the idea of proofreading. One thing that I found helpful was to let students evaluate their own progress. This was particularly appropriate in a high school composition course I taught, but it is applicable to other courses as well. At the beginning of the semester, I had the students list on a sheet of paper the problems that they usually had in writing essays. I collected and read the lists and found that generally their evaluations corresponded to my own observations of their work. I filed these lists away in the back of a desk drawer and did not take them out again until the end of the course. Then I handed them to the students and asked them to go down their lists commenting on the progress they felt they had made on each item.

They saw progress. They saw that grades on their weekly essays improved as a result of careful proofreading. They saw that they got back papers with positive comments on them and much less of the red ink that so often turns students off to the point that they don't even note the corrections and consequently continue to make the same mistakes.

And for my part, over a period of three years of using specific proofreading with approximately 375 students, I saw improved papers which allowed me time to concentrate more on content than on mechanics, to assign more written projects and thus give students more writing practice, and to have more individual student conferences.

There is, of course, no guarantee that students will proofread their papers in all of their subjects just because they have done it in their English class, but if math, science, social studies, and business teachers used specific proofreading for the particular needs of their classes, students would start realizing that it works in other subjects as well.

There is no guarantee that students will go on to proofread their papers when they attend college, but if they practice proofreading enough in high school and see it consistently reducing the red-ink quotient and consistently improving their grades, they will take this valuable tool to college with them.

Proofreading is important. We need to teach it. Specific proofreading is practical. It's flexible. It works. □

Sounding "Educated"

Early last semester my freshman English class and I were discussing an essay by George Orwell, *Politics and the English Language*, which deals with the decay of present-day English and what that decay means to us. Near the end of the piece, Orwell suggests six rules for avoiding the ugliness of much modern English prose, the second of which is "Never use a long word where a short one will do."

At this one of my students balked. "But," he complained, "I want to sound *educated*." I looked around the classroom, and many solemn faces were nodding in agreement. The looks in their eyes told me that since they were putting all this time and money into a college education, then by golly they intended to sound "educated." George Orwell and I were depriving them of the gaudiest jewel in their crown of education: a flashy vocabulary of long, impressive words. I couldn't have hurt them more if I had thrashed them with a cane or forced them to diagram the first sentence of the Declaration of Independence.

But I pushed on, calling up magic names of writers like verbal charms to prove my point: Roger Ascham, who in the early sixteenth century used the phrase "inkhorn term" for a word which smelled more of musty libraries and monkish retreats than of blood-and-guts life; Samuel Johnson, the most imposing figure in eighteenth century London coffeehouses, who said, "Read over your compositions, and whenever you meet with a passage which you think is particularly fine, strike it out"; and Orwell himself, who elsewhere in *Politics and the English Language* wrote, "Bad writers, and especially scientific, political, and sociological writers, are nearly always haunted by the notion that Latin or Greek words are grander than Saxon ones." And more recent variations on the same theme: Former *New Yorker* essayist E. B. White wrote, "There is no thought or idea which can't be expressed in a fairly simple declarative sentence," and modern poet and professor at the University of Michigan Donald Hall wrote, "Some people say 'wealthy' instead of 'rich' in order to seem proper."

My students began to give in, slowly and reluctantly. If nothing else, I and my list of names that sounded like a Who's Who in English Literature had them outnumbered.

But I could tell they were confused. On the first night of class, I had told them they had to write five pages every week, not read. ("But this is supposed to be freshman English. I thought we'd have to read poems and analyze them and stuff," one responded.) Then I told them I'd assign no topics. ("I don't have anything to write about. Please give me a topic.")

Then I said grammar and spelling weren't nearly so important as clear thinking and a logical, detailed working out of those thoughts. ("This is English class, isn't it? Aren't we going to diagram sentences and learn about adverbs and semicolons?") And now, I asked them to write in their own voices with their own words, simply and clearly and honestly. ("But I want to sound *educated*. I don't want to write See Spot run. Run Spot run.")

Had I gone mad? They felt cheated somehow. College and education aren't at all what they expected.

Yet, as educators, we can't blame the "media" (Howard Cosell and all TV weathermen who say "rainfall situation" instead of "rain") or anyone else for influencing our students to write the way they do. Somehow, rightly or wrongly, they have gotten the idea that we expect big words and reward students for using them.

This is nothing new. Speakers, writers, and teachers of English have been in love with big words for almost as long as there's been an English language. We know this because we have records of arguing over a "clear and simple style," as Donald Hall calls it, that date nearly from the beginnings of Modern English (around 1500 A.D.). The arguments for saying clearly what you mean have been clear, intelligent, and many. And, apparently, futile. To my mind, Ascham's sound judgment on "inkhorn terms" should have been the last word needed in favor of a simple vocabulary. If not Ascham, then Dr. Johnson. If not Dr. Johnson, then Orwell. If not Orwell, then. . . . And so on. Yet, 30 years after *Politics and the English Language*, local TV weathermen still use language that sounds "educated." And students still believe that we, their teachers, want them to use big words.

We believe it because some of our teachers believed it, some of our teachers believed it because some of their teachers believed it, and so on. And here I speak from experience.

When I was in high school, I developed a great faith in an impressive vocabulary. I wrote mindless little essays full of overblown sentences and received A's and red-pencil praise like "You have a fine style!" I got 100's on spelling and vocabulary tests by learning how to spell words like *excoriate* and *culpable*.

In college, I wrote lab reports in physics which received gushing praise for their fine style but unfortunately arrived at the wrong answers. I didn't do well in physics, despite my fine style. Thinking was also required.

By H. ERIC BRANSCOMB
Instructor of Communications, Northern Essex Community College, Haverhill, Massachusetts.

I changed my major to English literature, where the level of vagueness seemed to fit my writing style better. I thought it was impossible to say anything concrete about a poem, since it was all feelings anyway, and I could write things like "radiant vision of splendid beauty in Wordsworth." (Or was it "splendid vision of radiant beauty"? I forget which.) I came to admire the style of such writers as Addison and Steele and other dabblers in the eighteenth century art of ornamental prose, respectable in their day, but certainly not models of clarity for twentieth century audiences.

I received my degree, went on to graduate school, and began teaching writing, having proved myself worthy by showing that I, too, knew how to use the long words. I innocently began teaching the language of the educated-sounding, giving high grades to thoughtless little essays written in impressive language. A few of my students, I'm sure, became English teachers, and I try not to imagine what ideas about language they are passing on to their students. I wish I could track them down now and apologize. Maybe some of them have come to see the error of my ways. I hope I have.

Ideas about language pass from teacher to student just as valuable family heirlooms pass from father to son. After a few generations, no one asks anymore why they are valuable—age and tradition often make "antiques" of our forefathers' junk. If we ask why, generation after generation, century after century, teachers have taught the big word, the answer is likely, for teachers in the seventies, to reduce to junk some antique notions about words and the people who use them.

The English language had by the sixteenth century a well-established tradition of borrowing from other languages—French and Latin mostly—to increase its storehouse of words. The growth of new knowledge of the late Middle Ages and the Renaissance demanded a growing language to express its new ideas, and the simple Anglo-Saxon of the early Middle Ages would not serve unless it was expanded greatly, chiefly by borrowing words from other languages such as Latin. Throughout the Middle Ages, Latin was, of course, the language of the church. Since the church possessed most of the books and since the only educated men in England at the time were churchmen and a handful of noblemen, Latin was the official language of an educated elite (many of whom were native speakers of Anglo-Saxon) and was accepted as such by the peasants, who spoke Anglo-Saxon. Later, after the Norman invasion in 1066 introduced a French-speaking ruling class to England, French rose to an awe-inspiring position similar to Latin's.

Now consider an English peasant around the turn of the twelfth century: He speaks a language linguists today call Middle English. In content, Middle English is an Anglo-Saxon language expanded with some necessary French and Latin words that had come to be commonly accepted. The king and the feudal barons who run the land he works on and collect huge taxes from him speak French. The priest who baptizes his children and the bishops who rule his spiritual life speak Latin on official business. What is he but a dirty, worthless peasant, and what is his native English language but a dirty, worthless peasant language? In those times, the language the individual spoke literally fixed him on the social scale.

Later, as generation after generation of nobility came to be English-born and more firmly rooted in English soil, and as the prestige of the church began to decline under the pressures of the Reformation, an English language thoroughly laced with Latin and French words won out as the language spoken by all the people of England. It was English, modified and enlarged, but it still looked and sounded English.

This modern English was a rich language, full of synonyms—pairs and even triplets of words nearly similar in meaning but different enough to make exact distinctions. *Kingly* (Anglo-Saxon), *regal* (Latin), and *royal* (French) are examples. A better example is the case of meat on the hoof (such as cow or pig) and meat on the table (such as beef or pork). The Anglo-Saxon (peasant) word for cow was *cū*, essentially the same as the modern form *cow*. A cū was a smelly barnyard animal tended by Saxon peasant cowherds. The French nobility in England had nothing to do with country matters, and their only contact with this animal was when it was presented to them as a steaming slab of roast meat. That meat came from the animal they called a *boef*. Hence, when England began speaking nothing but English, it needed both words, *cow* and *beef*, to explain the very important difference between the animal and the prepared dish made from the animal. But the social distinctions in the two words also remained—the earthy, barnyard associations of *cow* and the chandelier-and-silver-spoon associations of *beef*. Only four centuries and more of constant use have made the words seem common and unsuggestive of social class.

English came to be what it is today by this kind of borrowing. Many of its synonyms express subtle differences in meaning very exactly. The writer with a vocabulary large enough to include both *complete* and *perfect*, for exam-

ple (basic synonyms, according to my Roget's), has greater access to the wealth of English and can write more precisely and clearly. Consider the slight (yet important) difference between the phrases *perfect circle* and *complete circle*.

If no common synonym exists for a strange, long word, a writer has no choice but to use it. A chemist has every right to a word like *electrolysis*, for example, though it's long (12 letters), complicated (five syllables, the accent on the middle one, a strange place for English words), and based on two Greek words. He or she has this right, especially when talking to other chemists, because this word refers to something that can be seen in the real world, because it is concrete and specific, and because there is no shorter common word which says the same thing. Even *deoxyribonucleic acid* is acceptable, though I'm grateful for the short form DNA.

However, many of those big words students have through the centuries had to learn seem merely to make the user sound "educated" (*eventuate*, for instance, which has a more common synonym, *happen*). A writer chooses those words not because they are more precise, but because they reflect better upon him or her. Expanding one's vocabulary with those kinds of words is a waste of time. They are of no help to the writer who wants to be understood more clearly.

Today, when Presidents, politicians, scientists, college professors, psychologists, and even sports announcers and police officers ("the alleged suspect was apprehended") begin to toss around this fluffy, half-Latin vocabulary, we are back in the Middle Ages again, returning to a feudal society. One of the class divisions in today's feudalism is the amount of education one has. Roughly speaking, we have the educated and the uneducated, and the educated appear (often intentionally) to the uneducated to be an elite, just as the barons and bishops formed elites in the Middle Ages. And just as they had their elite languages, French and Latin (we may almost call them codes), the educated today too often speak a strange Latin and French version of English (*eventuate*) that the uneducated cannot recognize. Sounding "educated," especially when it is mistaken for being educated, becomes a way of separating the ins from the outs, a deep-seated class discrimination. Students who cannot understand, say, a sociology textbook feel "dumb" (their word, exactly), yet the language of the book clouds the meaning. They are not dumb; the sociologist has tried to sound "educated."

There is no relationship between *being* educated and *sounding* educated. At its best, sounding educated is a strange and sometimes laughable art, like cake decorating or formal gardening.

There is no relationship between *being* educated and *sounding* educated (as my student implied). At its best, sounding educated is a strange and sometimes laughable minor art, like cake decorating or formal gardening. At its worst, it can be, as Orwell described in *Politics and the English Language*, both an attempt to mislead the reader and the result of unclear thinking on the part of the writer.

As educators we might accept the use of long words as a minor art (if that's all it were) but never, I hope, would we think of dishonesty and fuzzy thinking as something we should be teaching. Yet whenever we imply, by design or not, that we will think more highly of a student who uses long words, we are encouraging dishonesty and fuzzy thinking. In view of the plain fact of widespread use of self-important language and students' wishes to learn how to sound "educated," it seems we must be transmitting our approval. I'm not sure how.

Possibly the following questions will give some clues about where in the world students learn to use self-important language. The answer to each of the questions should be "no," but, given the facts before us, aren't we all, as educated people and as educators, just a bit guilty?

1. Do we believe, deep down, that the educated are socially above the uneducated?

2. Do we believe, deep down, that we, the educated, need to separate ourselves from the uneducated by means of a special language? That anyone who uses simple language is not as intelligent as we are?

3. Do we ever imply that if our students want to become members of our special class, they must learn to speak our special educated-sounding language?

4. Do we believe one of the marks of an educated person is an "extended vocabulary" (or whatever term we choose to call it by)?

5. Do we tell our students "use the plainest words you can to make yourself clear" while giving them weekly vocabularly lists to learn? Do we pay lip service to Ascham and Orwell while secretly admiring Addison and Steele?

6. Do we ever reward students who successfully cover up their weak or missing thoughts with a cloud of educated-sounding language?

7. Do we accept as fact a standardized test's decision that a student is "backward" or "slow-learning," "needs remedial work," or "does not read at grade level," when all the while we know that at least part of the test is based on the size of the student's vocabulary?

8. Do you, if you're not an English teacher, allow your students any kind of vague or educated-sounding language because you're "not an English teacher"? Do you like to see students use long words? Do you use them yourself in lectures and printed material you hand out to students?

A genuine education is the most valuable thing we can give to students, and now that the new cry is "back to basics," we must realize that sounding "educated" is not at all basic to being educated. □

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SPECIAL FEATURE
ON
SCHOOL-AGE PARENTS

How Can Classroom Teachers

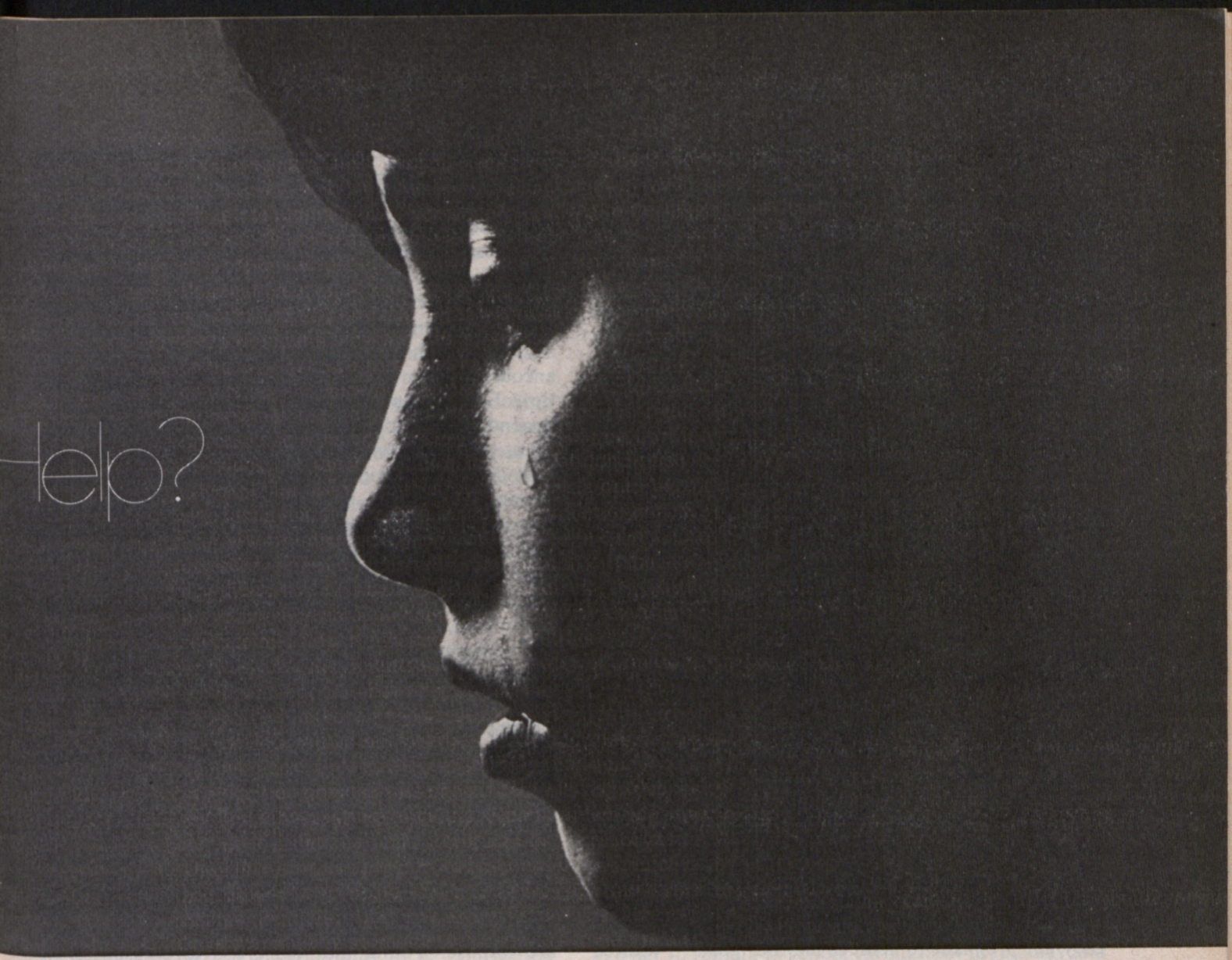
During adolescence, young people must make decisions about how to handle their increased interest in sex and the physiological pressures toward sexual behavior that accompany puberty and the onset of maturation. At the time young people are faced with such choices, however, they are likely to have had little experience in making decisions, particularly decisions which may change the rest of their lives.

Currently, young people receive mixed messages about sex from society. To a large extent, society disapproves of sexual activity for adolescents. At the same time, however, the media blatantly exploit sex for entertainment and to sell products. Further, the behavior of many adults and many teen heroes and heroines conveys the message that people should engage in sexual activity even though they are young and unmarried. In particular, the media and these adults and teen figures stress the pleasurable aspects of sex more than its procreative aspects.

Recent evidence suggests that more and more young people are beginning sexual activity at earlier and earlier ages. Those in the youngest group (those of compulsory school age) are bearing more children than they did in the past. During the period 1966-75, birth rates for women 20 years and older fell sharply, as did the rates for those 18 and 19 years of age. At the same time, rates of childbearing for those of school age (15 to 17 years of age) were relatively unchanged. In the years 1970-75, there has been a reduction in the birth rates of 16- and 17-year-olds, but the rate for girls younger than 16 has continued to rise—even though abortions currently exceed the number of live births for that age group.

About 240,000 school-age girls give birth each year, which means that almost 1 out of every 10 girls will give birth before she reaches the age of 18. Eighty-five percent of these girls will keep their babies, although more than half of them will be

By MARION HOWARD
Assistant Professor, Emory University, and Director, Teen Services Program, Grady Memorial Hospital, Atlanta, Georgia.



unmarried when they give birth.

All young people today make a number of decisions that influence whether they will become school-age parents. The first is whether to begin sexual activity—a decision adolescents often do not relate to childbearing and child rearing.

Historically, adults have not acknowledged that adolescents could approach this decision by weighing the alternatives. Instead, they have tried to prevent sexual activity among young people by such methods as keeping them in ignorance about sex, limiting their opportunities to engage in sex, exhorting them to "be good" or "do right," and threatening punishment. Generally, adults emphasize these messages for girls more than they do for boys. They are more likely to send boys a double message: "Get it when you can, but don't get a girl in trouble."

The old methods of preventing intercourse (and pregnancy) are no longer adequate. The changed role of youth, the breakdown of the family, suggestive messages from the media, and the so-called sexual revolution are just some of the reasons these methods don't work.

Many young people prefer to deny they ever make a choice about beginning sexual activity; it is something that "just happens," they believe. It is equally difficult for them to admit to themselves that they are planning to engage in or will continue sexual activity. The fact that most young people who arrive at family planning clinics have been sexually active for at least a year shows how difficult this realization is. Many can face up to their sexual activity only after a pregnancy "scare."

Because information about sexual responsibility, values clarification, and consequences of sexual activity is not readily available to young people, they are particularly vulnerable to peer group pressure when trying to decide whether to begin sexual activity. Nurses and others who counsel young people about sexuality say that many of them need and want support for saying "no" to sexual activity.

If an adolescent chooses to have intercourse, his or

her next decision on the way to parenthood is whether to use some method of birth control. This decision is more important for young people than it used to be, because the average age at the onset of menstruation has been dropping three months every 10 years for some decades. The average age at menarche is now 12.5 years. Very young women can become pregnant; some 10-year-olds can and do give birth.

Society has not acknowledged this biological change. For the most part, societal attitudes still reflect what is sometimes referred to as the "one-pregnancy penalty"; many communities will give sex information and birth control to only those young women who have already been pregnant. Moreover, if young women are ambivalent about sexual activity or use of contraceptives, or fear that their parents will discover what they are doing, or receive little or no support for the use of birth control from a sexual partner, they will probably not use any method of birth control carefully and consistently.

Furthermore, some young women become pregnant on purpose, and others are ambivalent about the possibility. Despite the women's movement, many female students still have limited goals. Most of what young women hear, read, or see suggests that the most meaningful role for a woman is that of a mother and a housewife. Therefore, many do not try to avoid or postpone reaching their "destined role." "If it happens to me, it happens," some say. "When you have a baby, you get treated like a woman," others say. Even those who purposely become pregnant rarely say liking children is the main reason. Often they get pregnant to achieve another goal: "I wanted to get out of my home." "I wanted something to love, something of my own." "I thought having a baby would make my boyfriend closer to me."

If a young woman becomes pregnant, her next decision may be whether to have an abortion. If she decides not to have an abortion or if on moral or religious grounds she would never even consider one, she must decide whether to keep the baby or give it up for adoption. If she keeps the baby, she has to decide who will act as its parents.

Although it may seem that a young woman's decision to keep her child means that she—and perhaps the baby's father—will assume parenting responsibilities, this is not necessarily so. Relatives may temporarily or permanently take care of the baby. The girl's own mother may take over the child-rearing responsibilities. The younger the girl, the greater the likelihood the grandparents or the grandmother alone will parent.

Parenthood drastically alters the life-style of people at any age—but especially of young people. Taking on the responsibilities of parenthood may greatly affect the psychosocial development of a young person who is not yet mature. Young parents become tied down at a time when other youth are beginning to reach out and experiment. This sets young parents apart from their peers.

Although they have not completed their own development, they are expected to be able to respond maturely to the needs of another developing human being. Sometimes they are required to make adult decisions within a family structure that does not encourage them to become mature. The responsibilities of parenting may push young people back into dependency on adults just as they are gaining in their quest to become independent.

Policies, regulations, rules, and laws often prevent young people from successfully managing parental responsibility. Welfare regulations may cause a young girl to leave her family and go on her own in order to receive aid in her own name, inflexible school hours often mean a young mother must drop out of regular day school, and so forth.

Furthermore, since many young parents are forced to enter the labor market without being adequately trained and prepared, low-paying and short-term jobs are many times their lot. Statistics show that women who become mothers at an early age are more likely than other women to drop out of school, be unemployed or underemployed, and/or be welfare recipients.

Recent evidence suggests that those who become parents very young are more likely than others to eventually abuse or neglect their children—data which suggest that the strains of early childbearing are intense. Young mothers are overrepresented in suicide data, also.

Health risks are great for the youngest mothers. Girls under age 15 who are pregnant have a 60 percent greater chance of dying as a result of pregnancy than women who become pregnant in their early twenties. During a pregnancy, young girls are more likely to have health problems (toxemia, for example, a serious illness that can threaten the life of both mother and child). They also have greater problems in labor and delivery than women in their early twenties. Moreover, their infants are more likely to be born prematurely, have lifelong handicapping conditions such as neurological defects or mental retardation, or to die in the first year of life.

Closely spaced pregnancies are common among adolescent childbearers. Divorce rates in this group also are very high. Of those who marry while still of school age, more than 1 out of 2 will divorce within five years. All too often these young parents, particularly young mothers in their twenties, end up frustrated, wishing for a life that might have been.

What can classroom teachers do to help with the problem of early childbearing and child rearing?

First, they can help young people avoid becoming parents prematurely. As early as elementary school, classroom teachers can help counteract societal stereotypes of girls as objects—particularly sex objects. Teachers can help young people begin to communicate openly with one another. They can help with motivation and goal direction. Even if the school has no sex education program per se, elementary teachers can bring a realistic view of human sexuality into the classroom.

Teachers in middle school, junior high, and high school have greater responsibility to help young people with this problem. They teach young people when their pubertal changes are making girls and boys more sexually aware. At this time, young people are often upset or embarrassed about what is happening to their bodies and uncertain about how to deal with their sexual awakening. This is a time when students are first likely to face the decision of whether to become sexually active.

Teachers can provide information to young students about their bodies and about the decisions they face in dealing with their sexuality. Many do this by inviting representatives from community agencies—teen clinics, hospitals, health departments, and so forth—to present information about human sexuality. Others include such information in their own teaching. English teachers, for example, might include books about teenage pregnancy, parenthood, decision making, changes in patterns of family life, and new perspectives on women on student reading lists.

Senior high school teachers are much more likely than teachers in the lower grades to be confronted with students who have already decided whether to be sexually active. Current data indicate that 40 percent of young people will have had intercourse before they complete their secondary school education. Therefore, these young people need more detailed information about sexuality, with more emphasis on interpersonal relationships and what it means to be a parent, than those in lower grades.

In providing young people with opportunities for learning and discussion, teachers must be aware of their own values but not inflict them on their students. They should be open, nonjudgmental, and tolerant and let students explore their own values.

Moralizing does not work well with any age group—especially adolescents. The teacher's task is to provide students with accurate information and to facilitate discussion in areas where mature judgment and personal beliefs apply.

Some studies suggest that as self-esteem increases, so does postponement of sexual activity. Other data show that girls who are missing school are more likely to become pregnant. Therefore, teachers need to be sensitive to students, support their goals and aspirations, give them opportunities to succeed in school, and encourage them to attend.

NEA Resolution 77-17: Sex Education

The National Education Association believes that sex education that provides children and youth with information appropriate to their age is basic to healthy, well-adjusted mental attitudes. It also believes that the public school must assume an increasingly important role in providing this instruction and that teachers must be qualified to teach in this area.

The Association urges that courses in sex education and parent orientation regarding these courses be developed with care and that classroom teachers who teach the courses be legally protected from irresponsible censorship.

The Association urges its affiliates and members to support appropriately established sex education programs, including information on birth control and venereal disease.

Teachers are often the first members of a school staff to be aware that young people are troubled and that they seem overly preoccupied with sex. In those instances, teachers can seek help from the resources in the school and the community (school counselors and nurses, community health professionals, and counseling services) for the benefit of the student.

If a student becomes pregnant, she will need understanding and support from teachers, who can encourage her to remain in school throughout pregnancy and to return to school as soon as possible following the birth of the child. Although federal and the majority of state and local policies now permit young pregnant women to remain in school, sometimes teachers and principals counsel them to drop out of school while they are pregnant out of a false concern for their safety. These teachers and principals should remember that older women who are pregnant do housework, engage in sports, go shopping in crowded stores, and so forth. Almost all young women can remain in school without endangering their health or their babies'.

Teachers can point to the educational needs of young mothers—from being able to read the instructions on a bottle of medicine to being able to support their families—as a rationale for allowing pregnant girls to stay in school. Perhaps more important, they can cite the concept that education in our society is a right, not a reward for certain kinds of behavior.

Once young mothers return to school after having their babies, teacher support—not teacher tolerance—is critical. Teachers can reflect an attitude that says, "We care about you, and we're glad you came

back to school. Getting an education is also being a good mother."

Teachers can be understanding when young parents reflect stresses at home in the classroom, particularly during the early months of parenting when round-the-clock infant care takes its toll. During this time, these students may need tutoring or special support.

Teachers can work for a flexible school policy on attendance (excused absences to take a baby to the well-baby clinic, for example), and they can support permission for young parents to use school-related day-care facilities. They can also advocate sex education and parenting classes.

Young fathers and mothers have strengths. They have spontaneity, naturalness, and flexibility—all qualities that lend themselves well to parenting. They also have a great deal of energy, something that is a bonus for any parent. Perhaps most important, they have the ability to grow and learn. Surviving the continuing pressures of being a young parent and a student simultaneously may require them to use all these qualities and others as well. Expecting them to do this in hostile school environments with little or no teacher support is quite unrealistic.

One young mother in a school in Indianapolis, Indiana, wrote poignantly of her situation.

No Better Than Me

I am only as human
As Nature allows,
Governed by virtues
And morals and vows,
Doomed to be judged
By persons I see,
All in God's eyes
No better than me.
Followed by snickers
And comments and stares,
I try to pretend that
I really don't care,
Carrying a child
That's destined to be
Doomed in their eyes
No better than me.
My mind has matured
As my judgment has grown.
I know now I never
Have once stood alone.
God has opened my eyes
And now I can see
That those who will judge
Are no better than me.

Ultimately what we want for young parents is what we want for all youth—and indeed all people in our society—to be optimistic about the future, about their own life chances, and about the future of their children. □

SCHOOL-AGE PARENTS

(continued)

Educational Options in New Brunswick

Pregnancy has been one of the most common reasons girls drop out of U.S. schools. Until 1969, the schools of New Brunswick, New Jersey, were no exception. In the seven years before 1969, the records of the New Brunswick Public Schools show that an average of 18 pregnant students dropped out every year. Of course, more pregnant girls dropped out but did not give a reason for doing so.

In 1969, the school system began a program to prevent pregnant schoolgirls from dropping out. It established the Family Learning Center, which offers pregnant schoolgirls a comprehensive educational and health program in a separate building. Then, in the middle 1970's, the system started permitting them to remain in their regular schools—an option many other school systems also were providing.

Before 1969, New Brunswick, like most school districts, offered its pregnant students only one option: five hours per week of home instruction in academic subjects, extended up to six weeks after

E. CASSANDRA JORDAN
Director, Pupil Personnel Services, New Brunswick (New Jersey) Public Schools.

delivery and prior to the return to regular school. In order to take part in this program, a girl or her family had to notify the administration that she was pregnant. Many girls apparently preferred to drop out. Between 1962 and 1969, all 126 girls the district knew were pregnant eventually dropped out of school before graduation.

For the pregnant schoolgirls who took part in home instruction, the option had limitations:

- Five hours a week of instruction did not provide adequate coverage of all academic subjects.
- Most of the girls' homes lacked adequate study space and/or equipment.
- The system had difficulty getting qualified teachers to provide the instruction.
- Many of the girls on home instruction had had academic problems already, and all of them were, of course, struggling with the stresses surrounding pregnancy and subsequent child-care responsibilities. Most of these students became frustrated and rarely returned to school. Those who did found themselves so far behind that quitting became an easier alternative than catching up.

The school system realized that home instruction made no attempt to meet needs that might be more essential to the total well-being of the pregnant girl than her academic pursuits. It did not provide any special help or services for her unique health needs, for example. The system knew that adolescent mothers are at high risk during pregnancy and are much more likely than other expectant mothers to have low-birth-weight babies, which may, in turn, suffer from health problems and developmental lags. The system also realized that home instruction did not prepare the girls for the harsh realities of their lives as very young parents. Therefore, it established the Family Learning Center to provide for their education; to improve their preparation for motherhood; and to decrease their and their babies' chances for health, psychological, and social problems.

Today, home instruction as an alternate educational program for pregnant students in New Brunswick is available only to those who are incapacitated and therefore cannot participate in one of the other two options. School staff encourage each pregnant student to explore thoroughly with her parents the feasibility of remaining in her regular school or of transferring from there to the Family Learning Center. Each girl makes her own choice on the basis of her needs, desires, and aspirations.

During the 1976-77 school year, 38 pregnant girls chose to transfer to the Family Learning Center, and 10 chose to remain in their regular high school program. Five of these 10 later decided to transfer to the Center, two dropped out of school altogether, and three completed the year in the high school.

Students who choose to stay in regular high school adhere pretty closely to its rules, regulations, and academic program. The principal assumes the primary responsibility for the health, safety, and welfare of pregnant students as of others within the building. Under his direction, the school nurse has arranged for and implemented a program for these students. This includes (1) availability of a nutritious breakfast; (2) supervision of lunch menu choices; (3) weekly check of weight, blood pressure, and urine; (4) frequent consultation with guidance counselors and teachers; (5) frequent consultation with attending physician or clinical staff; (6) referrals to appropriate social agencies; and (7) on-going counseling. The nurse also arranges for suitable chairs and desks for the girls and provides appropriate reading materials for them, which she discusses with them periodically.

Through the Physical Education/Health and Home Economics Departments, the girls can take classes that relate to child development, human reproduction, contraceptive alternatives, etc. They can also participate in an adaptive physical education program.

The school nurse is the key person in the regular school to whom the pregnant teenagers relate.

High school teachers report that there are no problems or disruptions due to the presence of pregnant students in their classes. Girls neither request nor expect special treatment and, for the most part, perform in accord with their usual pattern. Peers are accepting and often discuss the situation openly, without ridicule or moral overtones.

Rap sessions with girls who choose to attend the Family Learning Center reveal several reasons for their choosing that option. Some say they fear being jostled in the high school halls, where bumping into others is often inevitable. Others say that they do not want the embarrassment of asking for frequent bathroom passes or that they are concerned about their appearance in the later stages of pregnancy or that they feel uncomfortable around their peers. A few are attracted by the nutrition program at the Center. Almost all are drawn by the supportive staff; the small classes, which are individualized; and the environment at the Center, which, by reputation, is sympathetic and friendly and good for them and their babies.

The Center offers a variety of services. The girls receive instruction in academic subjects, family life education, maternal and child health, and nutrition. They also take part in an adaptive physical education program.

The academic schedule for each student is closely correlated to the program she followed in her regular school before enrolling in the Center. This increases the opportunity for a smooth transition when she

returns to regular classes about six weeks after her baby is born.

Family life education includes instruction in nutrition, food preparation, sewing, and consumer economics. Under teacher supervision, students prepare their lunch at the Center—an activity that teaches them a number of important skills, including menu planning. Students also learn to knit, mend, and sew; they often make maternity garments for themselves and infant wear for their babies. The development of these skills and the tangible items the girls produce does much to improve their self-esteem.

When girls enter the program, they fill out a questionnaire that helps the nurse determine what information to include in classes on maternal and child health. Usually, she finds that she needs to emphasize prenatal care, the labor and delivery process, postnatal care, parenting, and family planning.

The nurse is continually amazed at the students' lack of accurate information. For example, when conception was discussed in one class, a student exclaimed, "Well, nobody told me how you make a baby until *after* I got pregnant. Then my brother explained it to me."

The nurse helps monitor the girls' prenatal appointments with physicians or clinics. When possible, she visits the students while they are hospitalized to have their babies. She also visits the girls again when they return home, to review procedures for caring for the new baby. The nurse also refers students to community resources for specialized services.

The nutrition class is a vital part of the Center's program and is required for all students. In this course, students learn the nutritional value of a proper diet, which is of utmost importance to their future and to that of their children. The girls also learn, though sometimes grudgingly, to eat a wider variety of foods. "You don't expect me to eat that!" they frequently exclaim when a new dish is introduced.

Since students are not allowed to bring food into the Center, the staff can almost be sure each girl gets at least one well-balanced meal daily—lunch. Also, girls may come to school half an hour early to have a limited but nourishing breakfast, and fresh fruits, milk, and nuts are available for between-meal snacks. The nutrition program explicitly outlines the importance of forming good dietary habits rather than living a "coke and potato chip" existence. Understanding this concept helps the students become healthy mothers with healthy babies.

The Center has some nursery facilities, so students can return there with their babies before they return to their regular school program. Under the supervision of Center staff, students share the responsibility for the care of babies in the nursery on a rotating basis during the school day.

Attempted group sessions with prospective fathers have not proved successful. Unsure of their responsibilities and in a precarious position, they remain elusive participants. Some do drop in at the Center on an informal basis occasionally or walk to and from it mornings and afternoons with their girlfriends. The Center staff is now trying to re-initiate and organize activities to involve fathers, which will help them to clarify their feelings and responsibilities so that future decisions about sexual activity and parenthood might be approached with greater personal assurance.

The girls who have attended the Family Learning Center range in age from 11 to 19. Most are in grades 9, 10, and 11, but a few have been in grades 6, 7, and 8. Very few are married. In the eight years of this program, 345 students have been enrolled at the Center. Of this number approximately 3 percent have returned to the Center during their second or third pregnancy.

Center staff members are carefully chosen for sensitivity, genuine interest in young people, and ability to relate to students with a wide variety of needs and backgrounds. The staff consists of four part-time academic teachers, a full-time head teacher and home economist, a part-time counselor, and a nurse. Other specialized support staff and services are available through referral.

The most common recurring problem among students at the Center is absenteeism. Frequent absences make it difficult for teachers to provide continuity in instruction. Absenteeism also hinders some students from maintaining a level of performance that will enable them to return to regular school with a minimum of difficulty.

The atmosphere at the Family Learning Center is warm, relaxed, and comfortable. The girls show much camaraderie and support for one another. For example, recently a group chose to contribute 25¢ every week for a "very special" gift for each new mother and baby. They also decided to set up a system for passing along outgrown garments from one baby to the next.

Girls who have enrolled at the Center with little self-esteem and with feelings of despair often leave feeling good about themselves, about who they are and where they are going—with an acute sense of direction and a determination to "make it."

"Graduates" from the program return again and again to give the staff some news about their personal growth and development and that of their babies. Their visits are often an inspiration to a pregnant girl enrolled at the Center who has doubts about what she can accomplish now and in the future. The visits say loud and clear in an unspoken language—"You Can Make It, Too!" □

Nutrition During Pregnancy

We know that nutrition is vitally important during pregnancy; in fact, it may be the single most important factor in a normal pregnancy. To explore how nutrition affects a pregnancy, let us divide the pregnant woman into three parts: a fetus, whose job is to grow and develop properly during its time in the uterus; a placenta, which must maintain the vital lifeline between the fetus and the mother; and a mother, who must provide the kind of environment in which the fetus can adequately grow.

The fetus must grow and develop in a specific, sequential way if its development is to be normal. For example, let's look at its brain. Early in pregnancy, the number of cells in its brain increases very rapidly. Later in pregnancy and shortly after birth, the cells get larger in size and their number grows less rapidly. By the time the baby is 18 months old, it has all the cells in the brain it is going to have. Therefore, the critical time for human brain cell development is from soon after conception until the baby is 18 months old.

At the same time that the brain of the fetus is laying down cells, it is depositing lipids, which are deposited as myelin in sheaths around the nerves. If the nerves are improperly wrapped in these myelin sheaths, they do not transmit impulses as well as they should. This deposition of myelin occurs throughout gestation and for about the first three years of life, so this period is critical for development of nerves that function properly.

In order for the brain to function properly, the various components must interconnect. They interconnect by projections that arborize like the branches of trees and almost touch each other. This arborization of the dendrites in nerve cells occurs late in pregnancy and through about the first five years of life.

As these examples show, the period of early development, both within and outside of the uterus, is critical for proper physical and functional development of the brain.

As the fetus grows, however, it is building not only a brain but the rest of its tissues as well. For example, it increases liver size both by increasing the number of cells and by depositing within the liver certain substances such as glycogen, a carbohydrate in a storage form. After birth, the liver can release this substance when the infant needs energy quickly. Finally, toward the very end of pregnancy, the fetus starts to deposit fat in a very specific way. A well-nourished newborn infant has fat in the neck, around the shoulders, and between the shoulder blades. The infant will use this fat to provide energy and to help it maintain its temperature after birth.

The placenta is a fetal organ with a very specific job—to deliver nutrients from the mother to the fetus in proper amounts and at proper times. To do this, it must grow properly. In the earliest stage of pregnancy, when the fetus is not growing rapidly, the placenta grows very rapidly; later in pregnancy, as fetal growth accelerates, placental growth slows down but placental *transport*—the ability to bring nutrients to the fetus—increases.

For all these things to happen, the mother's body must provide a proper environment for the fetus.

Now, let's think about pregnancy a little bit differently than usual—think about it as one of two events in a continuum, because that is what it really is. Physicians and others have tended to separate these two events, pregnancy and lactation, but as I see it, they are a single event, because many of the things that happen during lactation are prepared for during pregnancy. If we look at pregnancy and lactation as a continuing process, we see a number of changes which are rapidly occurring both to maintain the fetus and to prepare the mother to lactate adequately. These changes include, for example, an increase in the volume of the mother's blood; a major increase in her breast size (an obvious preparation for lactation); a marked increase in the size and weight of the uterus, which has to support both the placenta and the fetus; and an increase in the deposition of fat in the mother. This fat is deposited—deep within the body—because fat supplies the most efficient energy reserve for lactation, which demands a great deal of energy. Fat will be deposited even at the expense of other factors during pregnancy, so one cannot control fat deposition by controlling diet.

What does nutrition have to do with these develop-

By MYRON WINICK, M. D.
Director, The Institute of Human Nutrition, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York.

Low birth weight is the major cause of increased infant mortality and probably the major cause of mental handicaps.

ments during a normal pregnancy, and how does malnutrition affect them? In the first place, malnutrition of the infant may be quite different from malnutrition of the mother. Fetal malnutrition may occur because the mother is malnourished or because the supply of nutrients to the fetus is somehow impaired, either because of decreased maternal blood level or because the placenta is not transporting that supply adequately. In fact, we know that both types of malnutrition occur. For example, if we take a rat fetus and clamp one of the arteries leading to the uterus, lowering the blood supply to the fetus, we can produce a very specific form of fetal malnutrition, which is characterized by asymmetrical growth of the organs. The brain develops properly, but the other organs, such as the liver, do not grow as fast as usual. The glycogen that is deposited in the liver during normal fetal growth is depleted. The fetus has a relatively large brain, but its other organs are all small, and the liver is unable to supply energy in the form of glucose.

In contrast, growth failure that is due to maternal malnutrition is symmetrical. All the organs are reduced in the same proportion one to the other. In this form of fetal malnutrition, the brain is affected quite early during development.

What happens in human populations in which malnutrition occurs? During the Nazi occupation of Holland, famine occurred. The average birth weight of infants dropped precipitously—about 250 grams, or half a pound—causing a high infant mortality rate. This same half a pound affects infant mortality rates in our own country. The difference in mortality between black children and white children in this country—the difference in mortality between poor children and rich children in this country—is based on a difference in birth weight of approximately a half pound. So this half pound is very important to survival.

Low birth weight is the major cause of increased infant mortality and probably the major cause of mental handicaps in children. This is a very, very serious problem.

How does low birth weight occur? We used to think that the fetus was the perfect parasite—that a woman really did not have to eat anything extra if she were pregnant, her body could supply all the protein to the fetus. It turns out, however, that this is not the case. If the mother is malnourished, the placenta must choose whether to consume nutrients for its own growth, development, and survival or to transport these nutrients across to the fetus. It chooses the former, because if the placenta breaks down, there is no more pregnancy.

In essence, then, it is the transport of nutrients across the placenta that is impaired in severe maternal malnutrition, which is the major reason why the fetus is not properly nourished. This is very important in explaining the implications of some data that appear to show that whether a mother is nourished with carbohydrates or with proteins does not make any difference in fetal development. The theory is that as long as a woman gets 20,000 extra calories during the course of her pregnancy, her baby will be normal in size at birth. But, in fact, if the mother gets her calories in carbohydrates, the placenta will transport the mother's own proteins to the fetus because no proteins are being supplied from the outside, and her body will break down her own tissues to get protein. If the mother gets proteins from outside, however, the placenta will transport them rather than her own proteins. So feeding the mother protein during pregnancy spares her body.

For a number of reasons, a pregnant woman may lack other nutrients. Because iron is marginal in the typical United States diet, iron deficiency is very common during normal pregnancy. Certain vitamins such as folic acid are borderline during pregnancy. The main reason to supplement vitamins during pregnancy is to increase folic acid.

The most important nutritional requirement during pregnancy is that the mother gain adequate weight.

Gynecologists, obstetricians, pediatricians, and the august National Academy of Sciences have made recommendations for average weight gain during pregnancy that range from 24 to 30 pounds.

Now let us talk about certain special situations. Is there a chance that the mother is getting too much of anything? For example, it has been common practice to recommend high dosages of vitamin C to prevent colds. We are learning that high doses of vitamin C could be hazardous to the fetus. Data from both animal and human studies suggest that the fetus will develop a dependency on high doses of vitamin C; if it does not get the high doses, it may develop scurvy. Alcohol is, of course, another good example of a substance that can cause a problem if taken in excess. My own feeling is that once a nutrient is given outside of the required or desirable amounts, it becomes a drug. My feeling about a drug—any drug—is that a pregnant woman should not take it unless there is a specific important medical reason to do so.

Now what about the pregnant woman who is also a teenager? She has a special problem.

The pubescent period, especially in a girl, is a period when profound growth and developmental changes occur. She grows rapidly and her body composition changes in a predictable way. She deposits fat in great amounts and changes her muscle deposition and bone structure, and her breasts grow. During this period, her nutritional requirements probably go up to the highest level of any nonpregnant individual at any age after infancy. So here we have a girl who requires very good nutrition to maintain her own proper growth and she gets pregnant, and pregnancy imposes its own increased nutritional requirements.

On top of this, we have the well-known poor eating patterns of teenagers; we are dealing with a situation when nutritional requirements are enormous at the time of life when nutrition is perhaps the shakiest. Since growth is occurring in both the fetus and the mother, protein and amino acid requirements become paramount. Weight gain during pregnancy is still very important, but we have to be careful that we get the proper weight gain and the proper protein deposition in both the fetus and the mother.

Inadequate nutrition will affect the birth weight of the infant and will reduce the infant's chances for proper development and survival. The pregnant teenager should be particularly careful of her nutrition, both in terms of her weight gain during pregnancy and in terms of the quality of her diet. □

This article has been adapted from Dr. Winick's address at the Conference on School-Age Parenthood sponsored by the Englewood, New Jersey, Health Department in April 1977.

SCHOOL-AGE PARENTS
(continued)

"I Have a Life To Live, Too!"

In April of last year, the editors of Today's Education *visited a special school set up for pregnant schoolgirls. While there, they interviewed one of the students—a lively teenager who was most willing to share her thoughts about her pregnancy, her school, and her future. Her comments follow.*

TE: Can you tell me a little bit about yourself? How old are you, Sue?

Sue: Sixteen. I just turned sixteen Saturday.

TE: When is your baby due?

Sue: Monday, that's the 25th of April.

TE: So, you are really close to your time.

Sue: Yes.

TE: And how long have you been here at this school?

Sue: I think since October. I know I came the beginning of the school year. I might have come in September. I'm not sure.

TE: When did you discover that you were pregnant?

Sue: In September.

TE: Had you already started school for the school year?

Sue: Uh hum. I had started at the high school, because I didn't know I was pregnant until my third month. I had went to about three doctors and they told me that I wasn't pregnant. But the fourth doctor I went to told me I was three months pregnant.

TE: I see. And when you found out you were pregnant, what did you do then in terms of school?

Sue: I came down here to see if I could get myself in.

TE: You didn't want to stay in the regular high school.

Sue: No. I knew that they had a school here for pregnant people. So, I came down and I asked what do I have to do to enroll. They told me that I had to have a doctor's slip saying I was pregnant. When I brought the slip back. they had got my records from my other school, and they brought my records down here. That's how I got in.

I knew some people that was going to this school for pregnant girls, but nobody that was going here recently.

TE: And what is your impression of the school? Have you been happy here?

Sue: Yeah. You know, they tell you what the hospital is going to be taking you through when you go in. You know what's going to happen when you go into the hospital.

> "I think all the pregnant girls should be up here, because they could get a lot out of it."

TE: Did you visit a maternity ward and a labor room?

Sue: We visited a labor room. When we got there, the lady in the labor room was telling us what the doctors are going to do and what, you know, hop on the table. They had a small table, and she explained that you didn't need a big table because half of you is going to be off the table anyway. And that they would probably have a mirror up at the top so you can see the baby when it comes out.

TE: Are you carrying on your regular schoolwork here?

Sue: Uh hum. I'm taking English, bookkeeping, typing, clothing, and algebra. I have nutrition, and I learn a lot in nutrition—what a pregnant person's supposed to eat and how to set tables and about foods.

TE: And how many times a week are you having these subjects?

Sue: Four times a week. I also have gym. But I don't do any running around or anything strenuous like that.

TE: What's the gym program like?

Sue: We have gym three times a week—that's Mondays and Tuesdays and Thursdays—but we have it across the street at the junior high school. Right now we are playing shuffle board—so, that's good—everybody likes that.

Then, on Wednesday we have health for the whole morning.

TE: And then all of the students go into the Family Room and prepare lunch. What's the reaction to that?

Sue: Everybody likes to prepare the food to eat, but nobody likes to clean up.

TE: Do you think you're going to be prepared to feed the baby properly?

Sue: Yeah.

TE: Do you plan to bottle-feed or breast-feed the baby?

Sue: Bottle-feed. I was going to breast-feed, but I don't think I'll have time, because I'll still be going to school, and after a while I think I'm going to find a job and work, too.

TE: Do you eat breakfast at home or do you eat it at school?

Sue: Most of the time I eat breakfast here because I get up late. So, I come in and eat breakfast and I go to my class, or if my class has already started, I take my food to my class.

TE: Do you try to eat a well-balanced meal at dinner?

Sue: Yes. Before I was pregnant I didn't, but after I learned all the things that I need to have, I started trying to get a balanced meal.

TE: Do you do much cooking at home?

Sue: Yeah. I do a lot of cooking at home.

TE: How many are in your family?

Sue: It's my two sisters and me, my husband, just four or five. Sometimes my other sister and Aunt Bea come over to our place and they stay a couple days with us.

TE: And do you plan to go back to high school after you have the baby?

Sue: Yeah. I want to go to the vocational high school and take up nursing.

TE: Who will take care of the baby while you're at school?

Sue: I didn't think about that. I believe if I really can't find a babysitter, then I can go to school here for a while until I do find a babysitter.

TE: Is there anyone in your family who might be able to take care of the baby while you are at school?

Sue: No. →

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 30

"I'm taking English, bookkeeping, typing, clothing, and algebra. I have nutrition, and I learn a lot in nutrition—what a pregnant person's supposed to eat. . . ."

TE: How do you feel about the baby coming? Are you ready to take care of it? Do you feel sure of yourself?

Sue: They gave me a lot of confidence here.

TE: Sometimes some of the students bring their babies to school here, don't they?

Sue: Yeah. Girls bring their babies. Everybody handles them, helps out—you know—with the babies.

TE: Feeding and changing the diapers?

Sue: Yeah, but not that many people help the mothers change the diapers though.

TE: Do you want a girl or a boy?

Sue: I want a boy. It seems like everybody here is having boys.

I think you probably won't have that much trouble out of a boy. Girls—you know—they go through more than a boy when they are growing up through their development. Boys go through some, too, but it probably won't be that hard to explain to a boy as to a girl. Like—um—let me see. Girls like clothes and all of this kind of stuff. If you don't have money for all this kind of stuff, you got to explain that to them. Like when I was growing up, I liked clothes and dolls and all this kind of stuff. I always wanted me a new doll and all, but boys—you know—give them almost anything and they're happy. I want a boy, but if I get a girl, I would be happy. I think I'll be even happier with a girl.

TE: And why is that?

Sue: Because I think that I can have a better understanding with a girl and I would enjoy a little girl. And as she is growing up, she'll come to me and talk and stuff like that.

TE: Think you would be kind of like girl friends?

Sue: Right.

TE: Do you have names picked out?

Sue: No. I kept saying if I had a girl, I was going to name her after me, because every time if it's a boy, you got to name the boy after the father. How come I can't name my girl after me?

TE: Will you name a boy after his father?

Sue: No, because I don't like his name. He doesn't like it either. So he doesn't want a boy to be named after him.

TE: How much weight have you gained since you've been pregnant?

Sue: Thirty-five pounds. I try to keep it down because I know the normal weight gain is about 25 to 30 pounds. So, I know I have gained five pounds over the weight I was supposed to gain.

TE: Have you found, generally speaking, that most of the girls are happy that they chose to come here to school instead of staying in their regular school?

Sue: Uh hum. I think that most of the girls at the high school would like to come here—I don't know why they don't. Maybe because they have friends up there or maybe their boy friends are up there and they want to keep an eye on them.

I think all the pregnant girls should be up here, because they could get a lot out of it. While you're in the hospital and after you have your baby, they bring your work to the hospital and to the house.

TE: What did you think of the lesson you had this morning on contraceptives—the speaker from Planned Parenthood?

Sue: I think they should bring her up to the high school in health classes. Why should they show you these birth control things after you get pregnant?

TE: Did you wish that you knew about these devices before you became pregnant?

Sue: Yeah. But I don't think that I would have used them, because I was using the pills, but they made me sick all the time so I had to stop taking them. I guess that's where I slipped up.

TE: Where did you get your prescription for the pill?

Sue: I went to a doctor.

TE: What do you plan to do about contraception after the baby is born, Sue?

Sue: I think I'll get the IUD. The pill and the IUD is the best, I think, but I can't take the pill so I figure I'll get the IUD.

You know while I was trying to find out what was wrong with me because my period wasn't coming on and I was going to all these doctors and they said I

wasn't pregnant, I was saying as soon as I find out what was wrong with me, I was going to go get my IUD. But by the time I found out what was wrong with me, it was too late to get a IUD.

TE: You don't plan to have another baby right now, do you? You plan to go on and finish school and get a job?

Sue: Uh hum. And maybe after I'm in the job for a year or two, I might have another one.

TE: Will you have the summer off and will you take care of the baby during this summer?

Sue: I'll be working this summer. I have a job lined up to be an aide at a day-care center. I was working at the center until I was about five months pregnant. My little brother used to go there. I knew the director, and he gave me a job.

TE: Well, Monday—your delivery day—isn't that far away. Are you a little nervous?

Sue: I'm not really nervous, but I have a feeling I'll probably go crazy when the time comes. I want to go to the hospital after my pains get real, real close together, but I'll stay home—you know—until the pain gets real bad and I think I can't take it no more. Then I think I'll run to the hospital.

TE: Who's going to take you to the hospital?

Sue: A friend of mine. I've got to call her when the time comes. If she doesn't get there in time and I think I can't take it anymore, I think I'll call an ambulance.

TE: What's the best thing about being pregnant?

Sue: Having your baby.

TE: And what's the worst thing about it?

Sue: Going through the nine months. Not really the whole nine months. The beginning when you have all the sickness and then at the end when you can't bend down any more. Like this morning I had to have somebody put my socks and shoes on for me.

TE: How did your friends react when they heard that you were having a baby?

Sue: Oh, they didn't believe it. I didn't believe it either; I really still can't believe it.

Some people said I was going to be next. Everybody was saying that to everybody—you know—they were teasing each other about who's going to be next.

A lot of people around here were getting pregnant; it was like, it seems, like a contagious disease or something.

TE: Does everybody know how they're catching it?

Sue: Yeah.

TE: What was the reaction of your family?

Sue: My mother said she knew, but we kept going to the doctors, and they told me I wasn't. So then she thought something else was wrong with me, so they started having me get chest X rays and things.

(Continued on page 77)

Appropriate Resolutions from the Department of School Nurses

The Department of School Nurses, an affiliate of NEA, has adopted the following resolutions pertinent to the issue of school-age parenting:

• The Department of School Nurses believes that every pupil is entitled to educational opportunities that are designed to assist him [or her] to reach his [or her] full potential as a responsible member of society. The Department urges that all school districts provide educational facilities and staff to meet the unique needs of pregnant schoolgirls. Such programs should be comprehensive and include the following components:

1. Counseling with parents, the girl, and the putative father and referral to community resources, when deemed necessary.
2. Conferences with appropriate school personnel regarding educational program.
3. Plan and implement a prenatal, postnatal, infant care, and health education program.

The program should afford the opportunity and assurance for the pregnant teenager and her child to develop to the maximum of their potential.

• The Department of School Nurses believes that family life and sex education are of vital concern to children and youth, and influence their present and future welfare. The Department believes that the public school must assume an increasingly important role in providing this instruction. The Department believes that school nurses should exert leadership in the development of a Family Life and Sex Education Curriculum.

The Department urges that courses in family life and sex education be designed to provide comprehensive sequential learning activities based on reliable research. The Department further believes that teachers must be specially prepared for this subject area, and must be legally protected from irresponsible attacks and censorship.

The Department calls upon individual school nurses, teachers, and local associations to cooperate with school administrators and school boards and community leaders in establishing family life and sex education programs as an integral part of the school curriculum.

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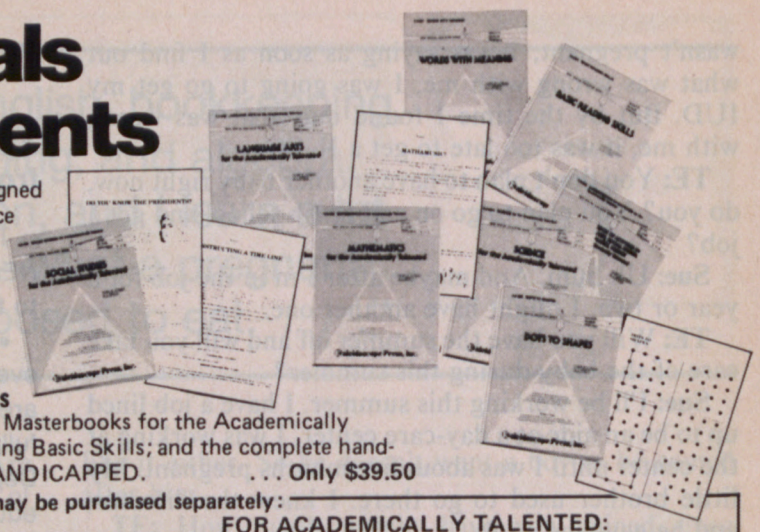

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 45

TE: Is she looking forward to having a grandchild?

Sue: She says if she has a granddaughter, she doesn't know what to do with it. She wants a grandson.

TE: What about the baby's father?

Sue: He was excited.

TE: And how about you? What was your reaction?

Sue: When I found out, I wasn't shocked or anything like that. I was just wondering what I'm going to do with it and stuff like that. Then everybody started talking about abortions, but I wasn't planning on getting the abortion.

TE: Who was talking about abortions?

Sue: My mother wanted me to get an abortion. And—you know—for about a month everybody was talking to me about abortions.

TE: What were their reasons for suggesting you have an abortion?

Sue: They had reasons like you're still young and all this stuff—that's all—you're still young. My mother thinks probably I messed up my life or something like that. But age has nothing to do with it, it's your mind. There are some people their ages who still can't take care of theirselves. I think I'll be a good mother.

TE: And you decided yourself against having an abortion? What were your reasons?

Sue: I didn't like it because, would you have wanted your mother to have an abortion? You didn't have nothing to do with it, but if she had an abortion, you wouldn't be here.

So, I'm thankful I'm here.

I'm sure that he—he or she—will be. So I didn't want to get rid of it. I'm just against that.

TE: Did anybody help you make that decision? You were getting a lot of pressure from people to have an abortion.

Sue: When I had all the pressure, I wasn't thinking well, maybe I should get an abortion. I was just kind of down with myself for getting in this position, but I didn't want to get rid of it.

TE: What did your baby's father say?

Sue: He didn't want me to have an abortion, but regardless of what he says, I'm the one who's always going to have to be taking care of it. I wasn't worried about his point of view really because he's not—you know—he may not even be around as long as I will with the baby.

TE: Is he in school, too?

Sue: He's out of public school. He's going to a school to learn to be a welder.

TE: So, you made up your own mind about the abortion—and about continuing your schooling.

Sue: Yeah. I wasn't about to quit school. I have a life to live, too, so I wasn't about to leave school. □

SCHOOL-AGE PARENTS

(continued)

What About the Prospective Father?

The stereotype of the seducer is an older man who takes advantage of a young girl, then disappears. In fact, however, many unwed fathers are adolescents little if at all older than, and going steady with, their sexual partners.

Prospects are poor for the health and development as well as the social and economic adjustment of young mothers. The same is true for young fathers. Many drop out of school, are forced into marriages bound to fail, and take low-paid dead-end jobs. Some turn to delinquency or end up on welfare.

What lures young people into this trap? First, peer group pressure and excessive glamorizing of sex today make sexual experience a kind of status symbol for the young. It "proves" that the girls are "giving" and that the boys are men. To some, it is a way of communicating love or experiencing an emotional closeness they lacked in childhood.

By ELIZABETH OGG
Free-Lance Writer.

Educational programs for pregnant teenagers should include the prospective fathers.

Then, among pregnant girls it has become a fashion to have and keep the baby. Often this decision is based on a fantasy that the baby will be a "loving doll," not a live, demanding infant. Boys apparently have similar fantasies: In a 1973 study, 61 percent of sexually active boys said that if a girl became pregnant, she should raise the baby—even if she got no help from the baby's father.

As one-half of this problem, young fathers need attention. They should share in planning for the children they have helped create and learn to manage their sexual impulses responsibly in the future.

Today the unmarried as well as the married father is accorded parental rights. In 1972, in the case of *Stanley* v. *Illinois,* the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that it is unconstitutional to deprive an unwed father of his standing as a parent, and hence of his right to a hearing to determine his fitness for custody of his children. Unless a father is shown to be unfit, his parental rights may be set aside only if he voluntarily surrenders them.

Teenage pregnancy is a stressful situation for all the parties—the prospective father, the pregnant girl, and both of their families. The Los Angeles Vista Del Mar Child Care Service, a pioneer in offering counseling to teenage unwed fathers (most of them reached through their girlfriends), has found that most young fathers feel scared and guilty and welcome help. They have entered into sexual relations with no thought of the future. The fact of the pregnancy has come as a shock. "I just can't believe it," is a common response. When they first see their babies, they can't believe they are real. But as they hold the babies in their arms, the full meaning of their sexual behavior strikes them forcibly.

To be effective, approaches to teenage prospective fathers should be nonjudgmental. They should initially offer to help the young men explore alternative solutions to the problem, affirming that the father has a constructive role to play, both before and after the child is born. Some young men may have to be advised of their legal status, but preferably not until

whoever is counseling them has earned their trust.

No one agency can deal effectively with the problem of teenage pregnancies. The modern concept of comprehensive care for pregnant adolescents and young mothers includes, at a minimum, educational, medical, and social services. Vocational training, infant day-care, and services to young fathers also may be included.

Responsibility for the bulk of the educational component falls on the public schools. Although a number of schools have set up special programs for pregnant girls and many now permit pregnant schoolgirls to remain in their regular programs, they have been slow to come to the aid of fathers-to-be.

Whether based in regular or special schools, educational programs for pregnant teenagers should include the prospective fathers—or current boyfriends who may not be the actual fathers—in some way. The kind and scope of the young men's participation will depend on the resources available and the goals selected. At the least, these programs can encourage young men to stay in school and perhaps try to motivate them to use contraception in the future. The programs might also try to cut down the number of forced or unsuitable marriages and to help the young men become effective parents.

Ideally, schools should offer fathers those segments of the curriculum that deal with health and nutrition, child development and parenting, and budgeting and money management. Schools might schedule weekly coeducational sessions in which prospective parents can discuss their special concerns about pregnancy and child rearing. The leader might be the school nurse or health educator, visiting obstetrician, a school counselor or social worker, or a male or female teacher with the requisite knowledge and the capacity to empathize with the students and to feel at ease with the topics they may bring up.

In Atlanta, Georgia, for example, pregnant teenagers continue their education in three regular high schools and receive their health care in a clinic for adolescents at Grady Hospital. Nurses, counselors, and social workers from the clinic work in the schools with the pregnant girls, their boyfriends, and their families. A daily class on reproductive health was at first limited to pregnant girls. Now, both nonpregnant girls and male students are included in the class.

What can the schools do to head off school-age pregnancies in the first place? For one thing, they can start sex education much earlier and they can emphasize sexual responsibility. A recent study found that 69 percent of 421 male high school students in a large Northeastern city had engaged in sexual activity, and that half of the 69 percent had had their first intercourse before the age of 13.

Only six states and the District of Columbia mandate sex education, and 60 percent of the school districts in these states ban discussion of birth control. Meantime, teenagers' ignorance of their own reproductive biology is compounded by much misinformation from peers. Denying them accurate information does not prevent sex—only responsible sex.

Along with accurate information, however, there must be the will to apply it. Many young people feel that planning ahead, which using a contraceptive requires, robs sex of its spontaneity. As one young man put it, "To have used a contraceptive would have been just having sex for sex's sake, and our relationship had more meaning than that."

Although a recent survey found that many more never-married teenagers now use contraception than did their counterparts in 1971, few use it until *after* they have begun sex relations—a significant number not until they have experienced an unwanted pregnancy. Teachers and counselors must somehow convince teenagers that if they are going to be sexually active, it would be responsible, not cheap and calculating, for them to use birth control from the start. "Love carefully," says a Planned Parenthood slogan.

The University of Pennsylvania Hospital and the Philadelphia Board of Education have joined hands in a realistic attempt at primary prevention. Pennsylvania law, which mandates health education, also permits referral of pupils for medical services. With this sanction, the Hospital sponsors counseling and rap sessions for never-pregnant girls in three city high schools. A four-member team conducts a weekly two-hour session in each of the schools. Students can have individual counseling in the final half hour. If they wish, they can also be referred to the Hospital's family planning clinic for contraceptive service. Ninth through twelfth grade girls and some male students have attended these sessions. The young men, too, are invited to visit the clinic for male contraceptives. The obstetrician-gynecologist who heads the project admits, however, that few take advantage of the offer.

In these days of small families, many teenagers do not have young siblings and therefore do not know how young children behave. All high school students need preparation for parenthood centered around practical experience with young children. Schools can offer parenting courses to both male and female students to show them how much parenthood involves. They should realize that raising a child is at least an 18-year enterprise with a price tag of about $35,000, that a baby needs a competent father as well as a competent mother, and what those roles require. Only with such knowledge can young men and women make intelligent choices about whether or when to have a child. □

There Is a Moral Dimension

For more than 25 years I have worked with teenage girls. And I have been concerned with the complex causes and often tragic outcomes of teenage pregnancy.

In a hospital in New York, one 14-year-old pregnant girl told me, "I can't talk to my mother. And I have no dad. My older sister has a baby, and she isn't married. So, what's wrong?"

You don't have to look far to see what's wrong. Coming from families where there is no communication or where the family is torn by overwhelming social, economic, and even moral dilemmas, many young boys and girls engage in sexual intercourse as a search for love and a human relationship. In a life lacking warmth or security, it is often only the sexual partner who—however fleetingly—provides this.

And then, of course, there is the world around them. The seductive world of sexual permissiveness, where advertising, magazines, movies, TV, and public figures they admire most all encourage them to value sexual desirability above everything else.

Giving a teenage girl the pill will not strengthen her willpower or solve her social or emotional problems. We know that within five years, 50 percent of these girls have their second pregnancy.

Instead of focusing only on ways to eliminate teenage conception or prevent the infant from being born, we should be repairing the shattered network of communication among families and their children. We should be strengthening these families so there will be less reason for teenagers to go elsewhere for love. In addition to jobs, let's provide staggered work hours so parents can spend more time with their children, better health insurance programs for families, fewer job transfers which cause such stress and insecurity, more time for leave for working mothers.

If we listened to our teenagers, we would discover that they do have values. These values and convictions are developed through work, the family, courage, sacrifice, and commitment. Over the years I have discovered that teenagers would rather be given standards than contraceptives.

Indeed, only recently I went to a center for teenage girls, where the teacher asked what they would like to discuss most. Human biology? Care for their infant? Physiology of childbirth? Family planning? The girls showed no interest.

Then the teacher asked, "Would you like to discuss how to say 'no' to your boyfriend without losing his love?" All hands shot up.

I think this indicates that these girls want to believe in values. They are thirsting for someone to tell them that for their own good and the good of society it is not wise for them to have sexual intercourse at 12, 13, 14, or 15. That sex at this age is not necessary for a caring relationship to develop and endure.

Whatever sex education is provided, we should insist that it contain a moral as well as a biological dimension—not only because it is what we want, it is what our children want. To refuse to discuss the values that pervade our sexual relationships is to teach young people that this important human experience is not a matter for moral reflection and discourse.

We do not have to be heavy-handed and moralistic in our discussion of sexuality. But in rejecting moralism we should not throw out moral discourse.

We should discuss with our teenagers what it means to love and care for one another—to trust and be trusted. We should raise the kinds of questions central to all human relationships, such as What kind of person do you want to be in your relationships to others? and What does it mean to be loved?

Let us offer teenagers the chance to experience responsibility, caring, and commitment. If they are lonely, let them visit old people in institutions who are lonely, too. If they have nothing to do in their leisure time, let them go out and work for the powerless, the retarded, the sick. If we challenge the young, I believe they will respond.

If we do not involve our teenagers in moral discourse, if we do not strengthen families, if we do not add a dimension of responsibility and control to sexuality, if we do not care for those who have become pregnant and choose to keep their babies, if we can do no more than propose technological solutions to an issue that concerns human life—what does this say about us? □

By EUNICE KENNEDY SHRIVER
Executive Vice-President of the Joseph P. Kennedy, Jr., Foundation.

Mrs. Shriver wrote at greater length on this subject in the July 3, 1977, issue of the *Washington Star*. A condensed version of her article also appeared in the *Reader's Digest*. Adapted with permission from the November 1977 *Reader's Digest*.

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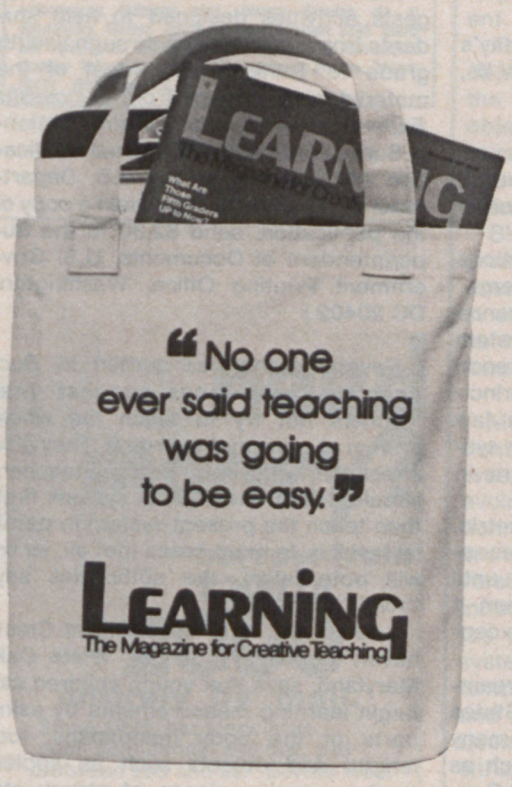

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Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Mrs. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues. Mrs. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

The Metric System

Question: What do Brunei, Burma, Liberia, Yemen, and the United States have in common?

Answer: They are the only five nations in the world not on the metric system.

In 1670, Gabriel Mouton of France first proposed the International System of Units (metric). In 1791, the French General Assembly adopted its principles, but not until 1840 was a law passed forbidding the use of any system of measurement but the metric in France.

By 1880, 17 nations had gone metric. Successive treaties and conferences refined and added to the system, until today the world is in accord when it comes to measuring—with the exceptions noted above.

Now, in spite of kicking and screaming by some citizens, the United States has decided to convert. Actually, many of our largest manufacturers, such as IBM, Rockwell-International, and General Motors, are already converting to the metric system, and the photographic, pharmaceutical, and electrical fields have been metric for many years.

Leaders in the work are closely watching the example of Australia, which decided to convert in 1970. It began immediately, planned a 70 percent completion by 1977, and is presently ahead of schedule.

A *metre* (French spelling of *measure*) or *meter* (English spelling) is about 1/40 millionth of the circumference of the world. From this unit, the other measures of length are formed by multiplying or dividing by the powers of 10—that is, by shifting the decimal point to the right or left. Measures greater than the unit are named after Greek numerals, and measures less than the unit are named after Latin ones. Thus, 10 meters equal one dekameter (Greek, *deka*, ten); one-tenth of a meter is a decimeter (Latin, *decem*, ten). One thousand meters equals one kilometer (Greek, *kilia*, thousand); one-thousandth of a meter is one millimeter (Latin, *mille*, thousand).

The remainder of this column suggests activities designed to help students from kindergarten through twelfth grade to Think Metric. Most of the material is condensed from *Successful Experiences in Teaching Metric*, National Bureau of Standards Special Publication 441, put out by the U.S. Department of Commerce. (To obtain a copy of the publication, send $2.30 to the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.)

Several authorities quoted in *Successful Experiences* suggest that teachers not try to teach the whole system at once, not overdo it. They also stress that with young children teachers should teach the metric system first, then teach the present system in parallel fashion. In most cases (not all, as we will note later), the authorities say, "Avoid converting."

Lou Smith, math specialist at Cresthaven Elementary School, White Oak, Maryland, says that young children can begin learning measurements by using parts of the body (handspans, foot length) and objects such as apples, books, pencils, pieces of string, etc. When they are ready for more formal measuring, teachers can introduce the meter and centimeter, as well as the decimeter, so that the children can see the "tenness" of the system.

Third graders at Cresthaven weigh things using the gram and kilogram and measure capacity using liter and milliliter.

Cresthaven's Lori Clements teaches metrics via a cooking class that culminates in a party.

Using metric measuring instruments, youngsters measure ingredients for peanut butter cookies as one of them reads the directions, and then they bake the cookies at 190 °C. They have no problem scooping up so many grams of flour or pouring milliliters of milk. They also prepare punch and make place mats in metric dimensions.

Cresthaven has a metric lab that contains materials purchased through special funding. When small groups visit the lab, a part-time aide helps them investigate the gram weights and the balance scale. In the process, students estimate the weight of various objects, then check their guesses with the scale.

Cresthaven's most popular piece of metric equipment is a trundle wheel, useful in measuring distance. A student lines up its "Start here" mark with a point at one end of the distance to be measured, then paces forward, counting the clicks that mark each meter. All year long, rhythmic clicking can be heard in the hall.

The students themselves are measured in centimeters—with a tape, not the trundle wheel. One hundred twenty centimeters sounds very tall, but weighed in kilograms, the children seem to be melting away. (The average football player weighs "only" 100 kilograms.) They read Celsius thermometers but think that the metric room temperatures, often below 20 °C, sound rather chilly.

At the University of Delaware, Barbara Logan has devised similar activities for middle school science classes. For starters, she suggests a chart to record students' heights in meters and centimeters several times during the year.

In fact, students, even those of high school age, might keep individual charts titled "Body Facts: How Well Do You Know Yourself?" Using metersticks, metric tape measures, and a partner, students can find the following body measurements in centimeters, after making an estimate.

	Estimate	Actual
1. Your height		
2. The length of your foot		
3. The width of your finger		
4. The width of your hand		
5. The distance around your waist		
6. The distance around your wrist		
7. The distance around your neck		
8. The distance around your chest		
9. Your head size		

Ms. Logan suggests a scavenger hunt as an activity in linear measurement. The organizer should measure a number of objects within a certain area and give each student or group a list of the unnamed objects' metric dimensions—width, length, or circumference. (Scavengers may get credit for finding any articles with these dimensions.)

For a change of pace, student teams might make up such lists for an area and challenge other groups to find the objects.

To teach the concept of volume, get some boxes of various sizes. Have students fill the boxes with cubic centimeter blocks and then count the blocks to see how many each box will hold.

Estimating how many cubes a container will hold and discussing how to find out without actually filling it will lead to the rule that length times width times height equals the volume of a rectangle.

Finally, display an empty, clear plastic cube, holding one liter, and graduated in 100 mL divisions. Also display other graduated containers ranging from 100 mL to one liter. Fill them with colored water.

Ask students which container of colored water could be emptied into the plastic cube, just filling it. Test the one selected and note the number of mL it had contained.

Starting again with the cube empty, fill it to various levels, comparing the gradations on it to those on a similarly graduated cylindrical container. All this is practice in estimating, a useful talent.

To determine the solid volume of an object, place it in a container, then fill the container with water. Remove the object and continue filling the container to capacity, using a graduated cylinder. The amount of water needed is the solid volume of the removed object.

Since one cubic centimeter, one gram, and one milliliter of water are all equal, the solid's volume can be stated in cubic centimeters or milliliters, and its weight can be stated in an equal number of grams.

Most authorities recommend that students learn the metric system and the present system at the same time and avoid conversion. There is an exception, however. John Lindbeck of Western Michigan University states that conversion, both ways, is necessary in industry and industrial education until the time comes when only the metric system is used. Replacement sizes for lumber, metal tubing, screw threads, and rivets, and pressures for welding tanks all currently may be stated in either metric or present measurements. Therefore, Dr. Lindbeck believes that having dual readout micrometers and other instruments for woodworking and metal and auto shop is necessary.

An assignment students might enjoy would be scouting the supermarket to find articles that have their contents given in both the present and metric systems.

The class could be divided into groups, each assigned to a certain area of the store—drugs, auto supplies, sporting goods, clothing, canned goods, housewares. The class might compile a master list, duplicate it, and take it home to parents and grandparents who are dragging their feet on learning the metric system. □

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Books

A Chance To Learn: The History of Race and Education in the United States by **Meyer Weinberg.** Cambridge University Press. 471 pp. $27.50, hardback; $6.95, paperback.

Meyer Weinberg, director of the Center for Equal Education at Northwestern University and editor of the journal *Integrated Education*, has written the best book in a generation on racial discrimination in education. Its scope and the richness of its scholarly documentation are unprecedented.

Weinberg has studied all sectors of education, public and private, from elementary to professional and graduate schools. He analyzes the educational experience of Black Americans, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians against the background of each group's history. By placing historical data in the context of the economic and political forces that have shaped American society, Weinberg convincingly explains the impact of slavery and conquest on human beings.

Parts of the book will be familiar to nearly all readers. Its relentless documentation of racist public policy in education over a span of centuries will, however, be a painful revelation to most, particularly since this subject, in Weinberg's words, "had escaped notice in the standard histories of the United States and of American education."

A notable strength of the study is its excellent account of the legal struggle to end segregation in education, the decades of successful resistance by local jurisdictions, and recent progress in desegregation.

Because of the constitutional and political issues involved, discrimination against Blacks in education has been in the forefront of public debate for the last two decades. The plight of Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians has, however, been generally ignored. Weinberg makes an important contribution by his study of their victimization.

In the second section of the book, Weinberg presents a comprehensive account of the discriminatory policies of white colleges and universities from the early nineteenth century to the present, as well as a useful history of the Negro colleges and universities. He is particularly effective in depicting the humiliating conditions black college students often faced in the North, including exclusion from dormitories and some sports, extracurricular activities, and campus organizations.

This is a fine book, but its weaknesses should be pointed out. The author's avowed commitment to the victims of discrimination causes him to slip into exaggeration occasionally; for example, he identifies Dr. Daniel Hale Williams, who sutured a stab wound in the membrane enclosing the heart, as "the Negro inventor of open heart surgery."

A more serious problem is that Weinberg seems to assume that virtually all the significant obstacles to equal educational achievement by minorities are traceable to systematic discrimination. He tends to ignore cultural or behavioral factors—other than language—which have impeded minorities' progress. This weakness is especially apparent in his strained effort to account for the different achievement patterns of immigrant Russian Jews in the late nineteenth century and Puerto Ricans in the mid-twentieth. He does, however, quite correctly differentiate the effect of public policy (as distinct from private prejudice) on children of European immigrants from its impact on those of native born racial minorities: no "European group saw its children consigned to deliberately inferior and segregated schools. Nor were they denied the political means to protect their group interests."

A Chance To Learn is a major contribution to the history of education in the United States. I highly recommend it for anyone who seeks to understand the contemporary crisis of race and education.

Reviewed by **Michael R. Winston,** *director, Moorland-Spingarn Research Center, Howard University, Washington, DC.*

Rites of Passage: Adolescence in America, 1790 to the Present by **Joseph F. Kett.** Basic Books. 327 pp. $16.50.

Joseph F. Kett, professor of history at the University of Virginia, has written a study of young people that deserves the attention of professional educators. Despite the brevity of the text, *Rites of Passage* invites careful reading. It gives a "historical perspective on the biases and distortions that inevitably enter into society's response to youth" that is comforting to those of us who are irritated with generalizations about the past (good) and the present (bad).

This history is clearly organized and solidly researched. Kett divides his analysis into three time periods: "Youth in the Early Republic, 1790-1840," when young people were uprooted from an agrarian economy and migrated to the cities; "Toward the Age of Adolescence, 1840-1900," when middle-class parents sought new ways of guaranteeing their children's occupational security; and "The Era of Adolescence, 1900-Present," when education has been prolonged and the "adolescent" invented. The 39 pages of annotated footnotes, on everything from a Cotton Mather essay to Hunter Thompson's *Hell's Angels,* reveal Kett's homework, which he admits is largely about "white male young people living in settled areas."

The attitude ranges from objectivity to amusement. The prose is usually clear, sometimes turgid. The content continually demonstrates the complexity of history and the fragility of modern generalizations. For example, we learn that the family always has been vulnerable; that intellectuals always have bewailed the velocity of social change; that student truancy and disorders are not restricted to the 1960's and 1970's; that demography, economics, and social class structure affect definitions of young people and their roles. We also learn a good deal about the vast changes in the formal and informal educational systems of our nation in the past 200 years.

This book (or at the very least Chapter 9, "The Age of Adolescence") should not be left for summer school course reading. It chews slowly but is nourishing.

Reviewed by **Brooke Workman,** *English and humanities teacher, West High School, Iowa City, Iowa.*

Troubled Teachers by **Esther P. Rothman.** David McKay. 268 pp. $10.

Esther Rothman obviously cares deeply about children, and that is good. One is bound to agree with her condemnation of teachers who mistreat students, show poor judgment in discipline, unconsciously hurt children's

feelings, and miss opportunities for real teaching. In time, though, one wants to cry, "Hold, enough!" Surely schools everywhere have teachers who do the right thing; Rothman can't be the only "perfect" educator. (She has been both teacher and administrator in New York City.)

I, for one, am repelled by such statements as this:

> Violence exists in our schools because teachers, like all people, have the capacity for violence in them. Violence exists because the power games that teachers play with students ultimately and justifiably fail. Violence exists because, out of frustration and fear, teachers lash out in anger.

Or this:

> Teachers . . . are essentially no different from prison guards.

Of course there are some poor teachers, and I agree with Rothman that they ought to be fired forthwith. Although my own experience has been limited to teaching in the Middle West, I believe that most teachers are dedicated to helping children and—allowing us all an occasional lapse of judgment—are doing an effective job.

Perhaps if Rothman had been less strident in her condemnation, however, she would not have found a publisher. The media are convinced that bad news is good news.

Troubled Teachers does offer significant and helpful insights into the problems of teaching. Rothman comes back again and again to the need for children "to learn how to cope with feelings." No doubt most of us need to do a better job of teaching this. She also stresses the importance of teaching children "how to learn." This is hardly a new concept, but Rothman throws some new light on it.

It seems to me unlikely that the really "troubled" teachers will read this book, and the vast numbers of teachers who daily face their classes with enthusiasm don't deserve Rothman's out-of-hand condemnation.

Reviewed by **Gunnar Horn,** *retired head of the English Department, Benson High School, Omaha, Nebraska.*

The Schools That Fear Built: Segregationist Academies in the South by **David Nevin** and **Robert E. Bills.** Acropolis Books. 186 pp. $10.

Here is what is probably the first full discussion of the new private schools, characterized by many as segregationist academies, that have sprung up across the South in the wake of integration orders. It contains the report of a study of these schools conducted by the Lamar Society, a group of progressive

(continued on page 86)

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Books

(continued)

Southerners, and funded by the Ford Foundation. The study was limited to the academies in the South, though its authors believe that the existence of such schools is national rather than regional in occurrence.

The Schools That Fear Built consists of two parts, by different authors. Interestingly, the two authors, using very different methods, have arrived at similar conclusions.

The qualitative report is based on interviews conducted during field visits by Lamar Society staff members and by the author, journalist David Nevin. Nevin presents a clear picture of the nature of the new schools. His objective, he says, was "to let the realities of the new schools speak for themselves. . . . The judgment of the academies properly is the reader's."

The second part of the book is Robert E. Bills' assessment of 11 of the schools. Bills, a research professor of education at the University of Alabama who specializes in affective assessment, tested the students, teachers, and parents in these schools and analyzed the test results by computer. His data provide information on such topics as headmasters' insecurity, the schools' inadequacies, their uniqueness and opportunities, and differences between those that call themselves Christian schools and those that style themselves as academies.

On this last subject, Bills says that "in most instances it was difficult to tell the difference between a Christian school and an academy. Most of the academies say they are Christian which means to them that they maintain 'the American way of life.' . . . One school claims a Christian philosophy of education but inquiry did not yield a clear definition of the . . . term."

The Schools That Fear Built should be on each educator's reading list. I look forward with eagerness to further studies which are needed to determine the amount of cognitive achievement of the children in these schools.

Reviewed by **Bill Lewis,** *English teacher, Oak Ridge (Tennessee) High School; member, NEA Board of Directors.*

The Study of the Future by **Edward Cornish.** World Future Society. 300 pp. $9.50.

If you agree with H. G. Wells that "human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe," you will want to read *The Study of the Future.* The purpose of the book, according to the author, is to "describe the new study of the future, and suggest how it can help people to build a better tomorrow." The underlying theme is that the type of world our children will inherit depends upon "our ability to understand the possibilities of the future."

Introductory chapters contain a description of the problems that now confront humanity as a whole, an analysis of the causes of the present period of convulsive change and discontinuity, and an evaluation of doomsday predictions for the future. Especially valuable, although brief, is the discussion of the psychological effects of rapid change—loss of recognition, of stability, of security of status, and of hope.

Some chapters, on such topics as the history of futurism, the lives and thoughts of well-known futurists, and exemplary business and governmental long-range planning policies, may appeal to only the most ardent futurist.

Three of the chapters, however, should appeal to all educators interested in futurism. One of them concerns the importance of futuristics in helping people think creatively, improve their skill in making decisions, and regain confidence in their ability to cope with a rapidly changing society—all highly desirable goals for education.

The other two chapters deal with topics directly relevant to classroom instruction. The first briefly outlines the educational content and organizational structure of a future-oriented school curriculum. The second describes in nontechnical terms many useful procedures for analyzing the future. Both chapters suggest methods teachers can use to help students take account of the future in their thinking.

Educators looking for a concise, readable, and fairly comprehensive introduction to futuristics will find this book worthwhile reading. The extensive annotated bibliography and chapter notes are added dividends for those who wish to pursue futurism in some depth. However they approach the book, it should make all educators acutely aware of the challenge they face in educating the future world citizen.

Reviewed by **David L. Silvernail,** *assistant professor of curriculum and instruction, University of Maine at Portland-Gorham, Gorham, Maine.* □

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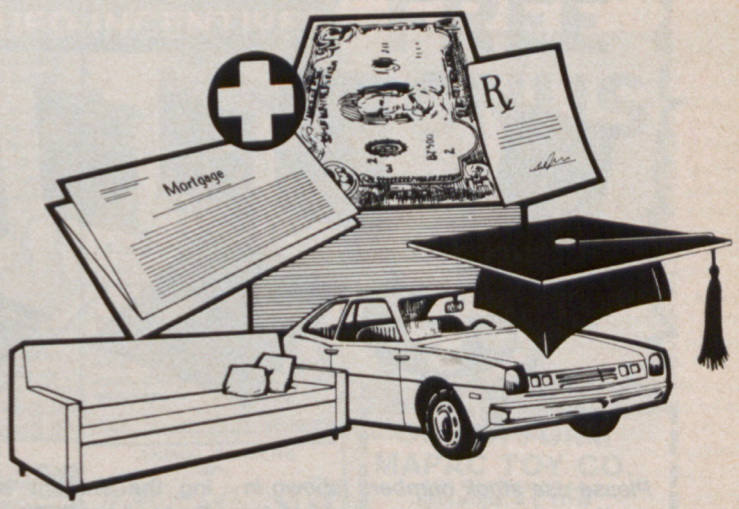

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50 — 59	$ 6,000	$24	$12,000	$47	$18,000	$ 70	$24,000	$ 93	$30,000	$116
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The New Copyright Law: Questions Teachers and Librarians Ask. This joint project of the National Education Association, the American Library Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English explains the new copyright law using a question-and-answer format. Topics discussed include fair use, educational media and technology, library copying, and penalties and infringements. 76 pp. 1977. (1394-8-0F) $2.

Cross-Cultural Education: Teaching Toward a Planetary Perspective. Robert L. Williams. Offers practical suggestions, examples, organizational strategies, insights, and educational concepts that will enable the teacher to maintain a global outlook in developing curriculums for today's students. Discusses ways of organizing and financing the polycultural curriculum, how to plan and implement in-service education, and how to encourage community involvement in school programs. 64 pp. 1977. (1704-8-0F) $3.25.

Composition: A Media Approach. Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr. A new approach to teaching composition. Analyzes the various processes of composition and suggests ways of extending those processes through the use of media. 96 pp. 1978. Paper: (1499-5-0F) $4.85. Cloth: (1498-7-0F) $9.50.

The Classroom Teacher and the Student Teacher. William Ray Heitzman. *What Research Says to the Teacher Series.* Offers practical suggestions based on research findings for improving the student teaching experience. Reviews conflict avoidance and elimination, leadership style, and preparation. 32 pp. 1977. (1041-8-0F) 75¢.

Death and Dying Education. Richard O. Ulin. Poses convincing arguments for the adoption of a death and dying education program. Gives careful attention to aging, cross-cultural perspectives, and the literature of death and dying concepts. 72 pp. 1977. Paper: (1815-X-0F) $4. Cloth: (1816-8-0F) $7.25.

Counselors Certification Requirements for the Fifty States, Territories and Possessions of the United States. National Association of School Counselors Research Report. 102 pp. 1977. (1396-4-0F) $7.50.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1974-76, *with* **Population Trends and Their Implications for Schools, 1977.** NEA Research Report. 42 pp. 1977. Member's price: (1650-5-0F) $3. Nonmember's price: $8.

Bilingual Education Resource Guide. Contains current descriptions of resources essential to the functioning of any bilingual education program. Includes an analysis of PL 93-380, with a discussion of its implications for bilingual and Native American education. 120 pp. 1977. (1506-1-0F) $4.50.

On Further Examination of "On Further Examination." Counters the unfair attacks made on the teaching profession in "On Further Examination," the study of why Scholastic Aptitude Test scores continue to decline. 28 pp. 1977. (0937-1-0F) 50¢.

Today's Education Reprints. Popular selections from *Today's Education* are now reprints in the *Quick Reference Series.* Write for a listing and prices to NEA Publishing, Room 609, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. □

Audiovisual Materials

Assisted by Beverly Teach, William J. Cuttill of the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center selected the following 16mm sound films as representative of those available for use in stimulating discussion on the problems and capabilities of people with mental, physical, or emotional disabilities. More information about a film can be obtained from the producer/distributor indicated by the number in parentheses.

Fetal Alcohol Syndrome. 15 min. Color. Discusses the serious, irreversible mental and physical defects found in children of mothers who drank during pregnancy. Grade 9-adult. (4)

The First Steps. 24 min. Color. Reviews the changes which have occurred during the twentieth century in treating retardation. Grade 9-adult. (6)

Get It Together. 23 min. Color. Tells the story of a young man who became a paraplegic and successfully coped with his disability. Grade 9-adult. (7)

Hyperactive Children. 15 min. Color. Introduces Ben Feingold's method of controlling hyperactivity through diet. Grade 12-adult. (3)

The Music Child. 45 min. Black and white. Examines the music-therapy approach developed by Paul Nordoff and Clive Robbins, which is being used with autistic and severely retarded or emotionally disturbed children. College-adult. (2)

Penny and Ann. 18 min. Color. Penny, a blind young woman, and Ann, her therapist, work to help Penny become self-sufficient. Grade 9-adult. (1)

Where To Begin with Nonverbal Children. 18 min. Color. Demonstrates simple evaluative procedures that a teacher can use to determine what action to take with a nonspeaking child. College-adult. (5)

Producers or distributors: (1) AIMS Instructional Media Services, 626 Justin Ave., Glendale, CA 91201. (2) Benchmark Films, Inc., 145 Scarborough Rd., Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510. (3) Carousel Films, Inc., 1501 Broadway, New York 10036. (4) Films Inc., 1144 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, IL 60091. (5) University of Kansas, Bureau of Child Research, 223 Haworth, Lawrence, KS 66045. (6) McGraw-Hill Films, Book Distribution Center, Hightstown, NJ 08520. (7) Pyramid Film Producers, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406. □

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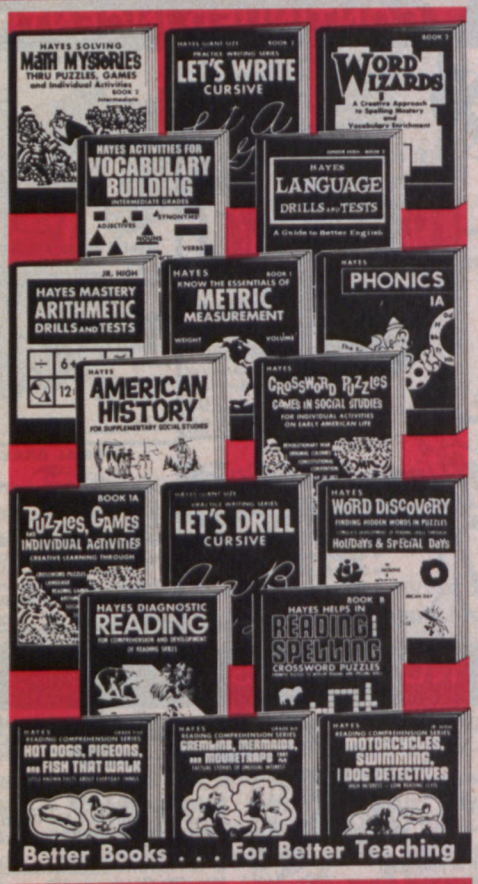

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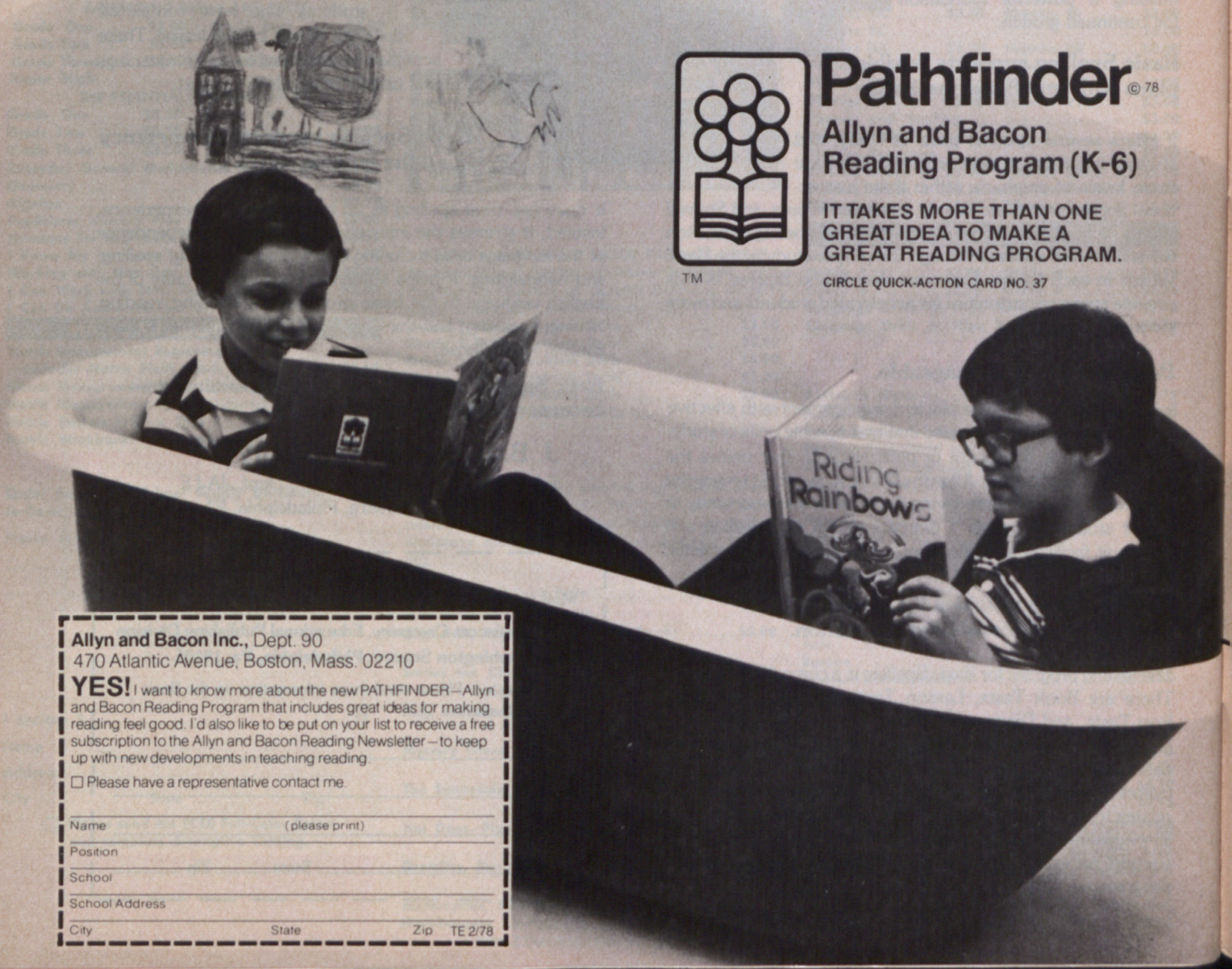

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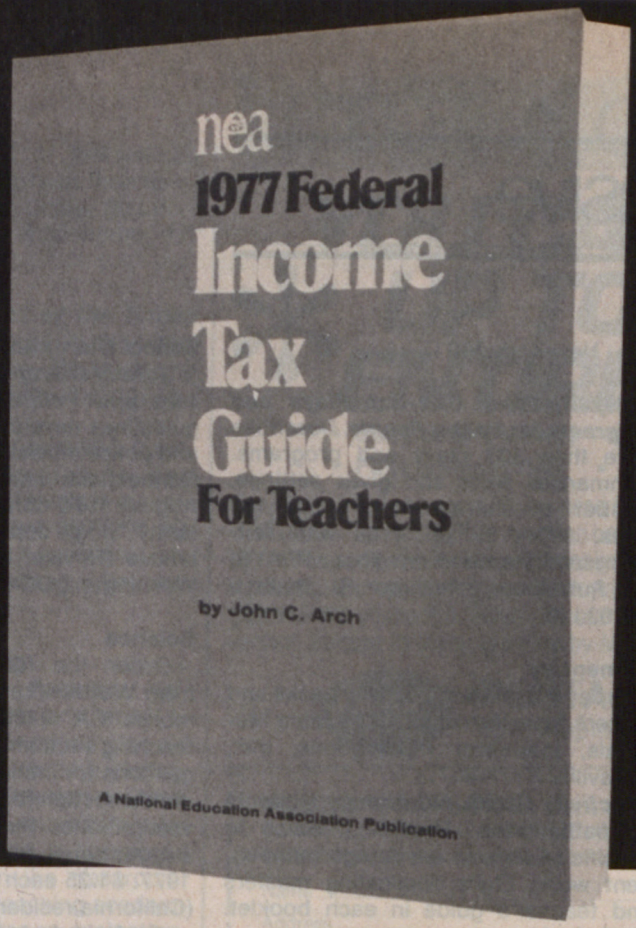

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Materials and Equipment

One Way To Improve Instructional Materials

This feature is prepared by P. Kenneth Komoski, executive director, EPIE (Educational Products Information Exchange) Institute. For further information about materials and equipment, write to EPIE Institute, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 10027.

Recently, I was looking at a college level textbook called *Reasoning* by Michael S. Scriven (McGraw-Hill, 1976). I noticed that Scriven introduced an idea to his readers that will cost him money but that should help teachers and learners. I hope that his simple idea will set an example for other authors and, more importantly, for all publishers of instructional materials.

What Scriven has done is to announce to the teachers and students who are using his textbook that he will take a portion of his royalties to award annual prizes of a few hundred dollars to those teachers and learners whose criticisms, corrections, and ideas best help him to improve the teaching effectiveness of his textbook.

When I read this, I immediately asked myself why other authors and publishers of instructional materials hadn't put this idea into practice a long time ago. Well, it seems to me that there are several reasons. Let's look at two of the more important ones.

- Once authors and publishers have invested the time, effort, and money it takes to develop and market a classroom material, they would like to keep changes in subsequent editions to a minimum.

Usually, they don't make major revisions in an instructional material once it has been marketed. This is particularly true if the material in question is a film or a filmstrip. (Some developers of materials do field-test them before they put them on the market, however.)

- Most people who develop and market instructional materials assume that the teacher-users of the materials will "adapt" them to the needs of their students. Well, of course, this is true, and no matter how much a material might be improved as the result of teacher and learner feedback after it is originally marketed, teachers who use it will always need to adapt the material for use with students. But, often hundreds, if not thousands, of teachers are doing the same sort of "adapting" of a given material at the same time. And much of that adapting is necessary because material developers can't anticipate changes that may be necessary in using a material with learners.

Imagine what would happen if all the problems that many learners (and therefore many teachers) were having in common with a particular material were suddenly to disappear. Surely one result would be that teachers would not have to clarify or correct parts of textbooks for students. Another would be less frustration and more learning on the part of many students. But the most important result from the standpoint of the hard-working teacher is that he or she could concentrate on those interpersonal aspects of the teaching-learning process that cannot be successfully dealt with by an instructional material—no matter how good it is.

One way that authors and publishers of classroom materials could give teachers more time to do *what only teachers can do* is to eliminate the most common problems teachers and learners are having in making good use of a particular material. And one way of finding out what these common faults are is to establish prizes for those teachers and learners who make the best suggestions on how to eliminate specific problems. If every publisher of instructional materials did this, I suspect that the quality of their products would improve enormously.

Whether publishers will do this in the future is difficult for me to say. What is easy for me to say is a public "thank you" to one textbook author, Professor Michael Scriven of the University of California, Berkeley, for putting a simple and, I hope, seminal idea into action. By using some of his own royalties to establish teacher-learner prizes, I hope he will stimulate his own publisher and, in time, others to turn this small effort into a means of making big improvements in instructional materials. □

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READ TIGERS READ

(Continued from page 53)

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AJH22	JUNE 29—JULY 13	CHICAGO & SAN FRANCISCO
AJH23	JULY 06—JULY 20	WASHINGTON, D.C. & NEW YORK
AJH24	JULY 11—JULY 25	DETROIT & MINNEAPOLIS
AJH25	JULY 13—JULY 27	PHILADELPHIA & NEW YORK
AJH26	JULY 16—JULY 30	BOSTON & COLUMBUS, OHIO
AJH27	JULY 20—AUG. 03	NEW YORK
AJH28	JULY 23—AUG. 06	PITTSBURGH & ST. LOUIS
AJH29	JULY 25—AUG. 08	WASHINGTON, D.C. & NEW YORK
AJH30	JULY 27—AUG. 10	DALLAS & LOS ANGELES
AJH31	AUG. 01—AUG. 15	NEW YORK

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AJH32	AUG. 08—AUG. 22	CHICAGO & SAN FRANCISCO
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GENERAL CONDITIONS & RESPONSIBILITIES

Itineraries, prices, and dates are subject to change. The right is reserved by NEA Educational Travel in its sole discretion to cancel the operation of a tour with no obligation other than to refund any amount paid by the applicant or participant.

Membership: Participation is limited to members, in good standing for at least 6 months prior to departure, of the organization named on the cover of this brochure; and their spouses, parents, or dependent children sharing the member's domicile.

Air transportation: Japan Air Lines or any other IATA/ATC carriers and their affiliates are used for both Japan and Japan & Hong Kong program. Air fare, which is subject to change without notice, is based on group affinity of 100 or more for Japan program and group affinity of 70 or more for Japan & Hong Kong programs. This requires passengers to travel together throughout. Should the number of passengers be less than required, air fare portion is subject to increase on IATA rules. Air fare between Japan Air Lines gateways and the cities selected in this brochure are based on group affinity of 40 or more on domestic airlines.

Accommodations: Two persons sharing a twin-bedded room with private bath at specified or equivalent hotels.

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Baggage transfers: Limited to two normal pieces of luggage not more than total dimension of 106 inches.

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Refunds: No refund for unused services of tour features including hotel accommodations.

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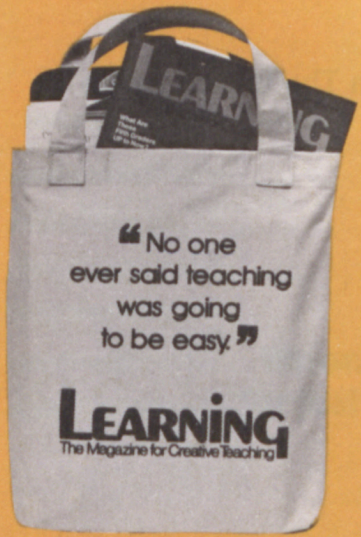

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